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FROM SCHOOL TO WORK VIA MILITARY SERVICE:

AN IMPROVED TRANSITION

by

Mark W. Hess

June 1980

Thesis Advisor: Roger D. Little

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Block 20 continued...

studied longitudinally over the NLS years. Job entry occupation and industrial sector was examined using contingency tables. Veterans received significant and systematic payrate advantages over better educated nonveterans. Veteran advantages were less obvious during the recession and recovery period of 1970-73. Military service may impart subtle labor market benefits such as productivity, experience, and maturity. Recommendations are provided to assist future veteran transition during periods of economic instability.

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FROM SCHOOL TO WORK VIA MILITARY SERVICE: AN IMPROVED TRANSITION

by

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Lieutenant, United States Navy
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Submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

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ABSTRACT

Drawing on the implications of human capital theory, the screening hypothesis, and 'dual' labor market theory, the National Longitudinal Survey (NLS) of young men age 14-24 in 1966 was used to test the benefits of military service at civilian job entry. Veterans and nonveterans of the same race were compared in each NLS year from 1966 to 1973 on 11 different variables using discriminant analysis. Five variables were selected, from the results of discriminant analyses, and studied longitudinally over the NLS years. Job entry occupation and industrial sector was examined using contingency tables. Veterans received significant and systematic payrate advantages over better educated nonveterans. Veteran advantages were less obvious during the recession and recovery period of 1970-73. Military service may impart subtle labor market benefits such as productivity, experience, and maturity. Recommendations are provided to assist future veteran transition during periods of economic instability.

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I. INTRODUCTION AND TESTABLE HYPOTHESES

A. INTRODUCTION

The armed forces have continually emphasized their ability to provide "experience" to young adults newly entering the labor force. Such a claim can be tested, and the results are directly applicable to military manpower, personnel, and training plans and policies. This thesis defines the generic experiences a young adult would be expected to gain while in military service, reviews current studies showing a need for such experience by young adult job seekers, and then tests some samples of young men in a veteran versus nonveteran analysis of the National Longitudinal Survey (NLS) panels from 1966 to 1973. The analyses conducted concern labor force participation, unemployment, part-time and full-time school participation, and various job entry-level characteristics. Drawing on the implications of human capital theory, the "screening hypothesis", and segmented (or dual) labor market theory, this chapter constructs five central hypotheses involving the determinants of civilian job entry for veterans and nonveterans.

1. Human Capital Theory

Sahota (1978), in his informative and exhaustive review of theories of personal income distribution, noted that the treatment of human skill within the capital-theory framework was by no means new. He cites a quote by Adam Smith from 1776

as indicative of the "old vintage" theory of human capital, "wages vary with the cost of learning the business" (Adam Smith, 1776). Similar arguments concerning the merit of considering decisions in the growth of knowledge or skills as investment decisions in human capital, much like investment decisions in financial capital, have interested economists.

Modern vintage human capital theory has been led to prominence by such notable economists as 1979 Nobel laureate Theodore W. Schultz, Jacob Mincer, and Gary S. Becker. There were two aspects of modern human capital theory of importance to this thesis. One, military service as a source of productivity and growth for those young adults who serve will be investigated. Two, the costs of military service (including the costs of time) will be measured against the benefits of a term in the armed forces from the investment perspectives of greater life-cycle benefits, workforce earnings premiums, educational achievements, and financial-material capitalization.

A basic premise of modern human capital theory is that investment in oneself is the result of rational optimizing decisions made on the basis of estimates of the probable present value of alternative life-cycle income streams, discounted at some appropriate rate-of-return on investment. There were two problems noted in constructing an hypothesis around this premise. First, using data on young men of the NLS, it was difficult to separate "true" enlistees from draft-motivated

enlistees. Also, many young men were draftees. These facts violate the presupposition that a rational optimizing decision to join the service was made by an individual. This was compounded by the fact that many young men were reluctant recruits and/or recalcitrant in taking full advantage of in-service opportunities. Tests of hypotheses from a human capital perspective may therefore be limited in showing the full benefits of military service. The second problem noted in hypothesis construction was that data available were limited. Part of this problem was due to a lack of military veteran minority representation in the NLS panels of 1966 to 1973. This lack of representation in the NLS simply reflected armed forces accession policies that showed low minority representation, especially for women and young adults of Hispanic origin, in the military services from 1966 to 1973. These two important groups need focused attention in future studies, especially as women and youth of Hispanic origin continue to increase their participation in the armed forces. A hypothesis to test human capital theory in this thesis was constructed, but it focused solely on young men who were either black or white veterans -- and the results for black veterans could only be taken as tentative because of small sample sizes.

Sahota (1978) discussed a notable problem of human capital theory that concerned the investigation of the benefits of military service. The problem centered around the

adequate treatment of the maximization of the present value of life-cycle earnings in individual decision making. This problem was not eliminated in this thesis, but adjustments for it were made. That is, rather than show a "future benefits" versus "present costs" argument for military service, an analysis of expected benefits in the near term will be offered. Direct benefits expected after leaving military service were measured. This treatment was much like reviewing the starting wages for a teacher after college graduation or a carpenter after completion of apprenticeship.

2. The Screening Hypothesis

A common objection to human capital theory is that an overemphasis is placed on the value of education in the production and distribution of personal income, especially as seen in the works of Becker and Mincer (Sahota, 1978). Two arguments that have surfaced in opposition to human capital theory are reviewed in this chapter. One argument challenges the formal schooling aspect of the human capital perspective, and is presented in this section. The other argument contends that the on-the-job training perspectives provided for within the human capital framework are deficient. The dispute focuses on "dual" or segmented labor market theory and is presented in the next section.

Spence (1973), in a seminal argument, held that education merely served as a "signalling" device for prospective

employees. Arrow (1973), in a related argument, held that education provided only a "filter" that identified persons with pertinent attributes for employment. Two studies by Stiglitz (1973, 1975) concluded that educational institutions provided information to all buyers and sellers of labor by "screening" persons and those who are labelled "more productive" (by virtue of having superior "credentials") received higher wages, partly at the expense of others. Jencks, Smith, Acland, Bane, Cohen, Gintis, Heyns, and Michelson (1972) argued that schools served primarily as selection and certification agencies. Schools measured and labelled people, and acted only in a perfunctory manner to change people in a social context. Jencks et.al. go on to contend that schools provided a means to legitimize inequality in incomes and classes, though schools were not the fundamental cause for inequality.

3. "Dual" or Segmented Labor Market Theory

Segmented labor market theory challenges the human capital theory proposals that concern the benefits of on-the-job training. Harrison and Sum (1979) catalogued the major arguments of this theory-in-process for the National Commission of Employment and Unemployment Statistics. Seven propositions were offered by Harrison et al. to summarize this theory:

1. Dual/segmented theorists argue that jobs can be sorted/grouped/aggregated into clusters, with each cluster

characterized by highly intercorrelated and causally interrelated variables including wages, productivities, degrees of specific on-the-job training, the openness or closedness of internal labor markets, labor turnover, profits, market power, and access to shelters from competitive forces, such as government protection or contracts. In the original, most stylized version of the theory, two major job clusters were posited, called the "primary labor market" and the "secondary labor market". A rough correspondence may be assumed between these categories and Averitt's "core" and "periphery" or Galbraith's "oligopolistic" and "competitive" sectors of the American economy. The post-Keynesian distinction between "fixprice" and "flexprice" industries invokes analogous contrasts.

2. Workers with particular ascritptive traits (such as age, race and sex) will not be distributed evenly among these clusters. Nevertheless, the theory's variables refer mainly to producers' organizations (establishments or enterprises, firms, industries, government regulatory agencies) rather than to workers' personal characteristics per se.
3. To understand how these labor market clusters or segments are "reproduced" and what forces determine the ways in which the market segments change over time,

it is necessary to look beyond the labor market. That is, the processes that determine labor conditions should be examined. This examination would include the interactions between work and the institutions which condition the nature of work, such as the family, the school system, and those institutions which govern the availability of welfare, illegal income, and so forth.

4. There exists an aggregation of these job clusters such that, for several categories of workers, intragenerational (and perhaps even intergenerational) labor mobility is significantly greater within than among these clusters or segments. The argument is that mobility is "tracked", not that there isn't any mobility at all.
5. The observed behavior of workers -- their degree of attachment to jobs, their patterns of job search, the values they place on alternative occupational choices, the organization of the pooled labor-time of their families (who does housework?) -- is the outcome of interactions between individual aspirations, institutional (opportunities, ideology, and family, neighborhood and peer group pressures. In a capitalist society, how capitalists choose to organize production will dominate this interactive process.

6. Discrimination along the lines of race, sex, or age is an important object of inquiry for all institutionalists, but, contrary to the assertions of some writers, segmented labor market theory is not a theory of discrimination. Inequality and hierarchy are inherent in the job structure. Certain ascriptive traits such as age, race and sex are easily used to assign workers to segments, but discrimination itself does not create segmentation, although it does help to reproduce its concrete manifestations. As Bluestone (1970) points out, elimination of racism would at best transform a racist incidence of poverty and underemployment into a random incidence. Poverty and underemployment would not disappear.
7. "Dual" is a metaphor for "balkanized" or segmented. It is a powerful metaphor, like light and darkness, God and the devil, or perfect competition and monopoly. But, like the others, it is only a metaphor. The intellectual origins of the dual theory, in addition to the seminal studies of Dunlop, Kerr, Lester, and Ross, include the literature of the 1950s on dualistic economic development in the Third World, the "discovery" of black-white duality in American society made by Gunnar Myrdal in the 1940s (rediscovered by the National Commission on Civil Disorders in 1968),

the internalization of this split experienced as a "twoness" within the souls of black folks, described by W.E.B. DuBois in 1903 and gradually worked out in the soul of Malcolm X. Clearly it is a rich metaphor, however, to conduct scientific tests on the appropriateness of a metaphor does not seem productive.

This thesis does not attempt to support or reject the educational doctrines of the human capital approach. However, using the veteran-nonveteran comparison, military service will be tested as a type of educational institution that selects, grants "credentials" (for example, the honorable discharge), and then provides new workers to the civilian workforce. Three of the seven propositions of the segmented labor market theory, noted above, are tested in this thesis. First, an attempt will be made to measure the extent to which veteran jobs are clustered along dimensions that correspond to differences in market power, profits, and wages (as per proposition one above). Second, the thesis will examine the relationships for veterans and nonveterans to two institutions which condition the nature of work -- namely school participation and marital status (as per proposition three above). Third, the thesis will investigate the armed forces as an institution of transition from school to work. This facet will investigate whether the armed forces simply recycle personnel into the "secondary labor market" characterized

by low payrates, unsteady or seasonal work, arbitrary work rules, and weakly structured (or nonexistent) connections to better jobs in the future. The findings will be especially important for the disadvantaged and minority veterans entering the workforce (as per proposition four above).

B. SUMMARY OF THE TESTABLE HYPOTHESES

1. Military service provides benefits of increased productivity, maturity, and experience that pay-off for veterans at civilian job entry.
2. Military service provides employers a screen or certification that identifies veterans as "credentialed" job seekers.
3. The workforce is partitioned for veterans, with veteran jobs clustered in terms of occupational and industrial structure and payrates.
4. Veterans exhibit different relationships than non-veterans in the areas of marital status and school participation.
5. In the transition from school to work, the armed forces provide upward mobility to veterans after they leave the service and enter the civilian labor force.

II. LABOR FORCE CONDITIONS IN THE LATE 1960s AND EARLY 1970s FOR YOUNG ADULTS

A. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

This thesis was fortunate to have two excellent sources of information on the youth labor market. One concerned the youth labor market of the 1960s and was published by the National Manpower Policy Task Force (Kalachek, 1969). The other study concerned the youth labor market of the late 1960s and early 1970s. This study was a collection of articles from the members of the National Commission for Manpower Policy chaired by Eli Ginzberg (1976). The latter work covered the period of interest to this thesis and will be used freely to support the arguments of this chapter.

Barton (1976) reviewed the problems encountered in the youth transitional process to work. He stated that the "socially accepted" minimum age at which youth are permitted to enter most forms of regular adult employment had increased with the growing proportions of those youths entering and graduating from college. Barton noted that the labor force participation rate had generally increased among young adults (especially for part-time student jobs), and unemployment had shown commensurate increases. Barton saw the age at which employers hired young adults as an important point and stated, "The answer is not to be found in the unemployment statistics

at all but in a number of special studies conducted over the last half decade. The composite results are that from two-thirds to four-fifths of employers do not want to hire young people for regular jobs until the attainment of age 21 or thereabout (Wolfbein, 1975). For the four out of five who enter the labor force without a college degree and who want to do it between the ages of 16 and 20, the extended childhood period must continue, even when society has conferred the last year of its free 12 years of education at age 17 ot 18. The high school diploma received at this age cuts little ice; the graduate's success is not much different from that of the dropout in the several years before the age of 21 (Project Talent, Jerome Bachman)." Barton recommended at the conclusion of his article that input measures of school enrollments and paid employment status be cautionsly regarded. He cited twc areas for study by future policymakers that seemed to hold promise. One area would be investigation of a "training force" of ycung adults that parallels the "labor force", as had been previously proposed by W. Willard Wirtz and Harold Goldstein for the National Manpower Institute (1975). The second area recommended for study is related to the work in this thesis. Barton stated that measurement of the institutional effects on the lives and character of the significant proportion of young adults who pass through an institution, such as the armed forces, was important.

B. PATTERNS OF SUCCESSION FOR YOUNG ADULTS

Marcia Freedman (1976), in an informative and interesting article, reviewed the important predictors of success for young adults in the labor force. She noted that entry jobs for young men signified the beginning of full-time labor force participation, but that protected, tenured, and permanent "career" jobs (especially for white men) did not begin until about the age of 25. Freedman's statements were supported by the work cf Hauser and Featherman (1974). She noted that the patterns of succession were fairly strong for whites and subject to further examination for minorities, as minority transitional processes presented numerous contradictions and complications in analysis.

Freedman supported Barton's finding that the average age for new full-time workers was rising. She discussed this problem and concluded that the only reasons an employer would hire young adults were: 1) the young worker could be obtained at a low fixed cost (for example -- low job tenure, low entry-level payrate and minimal benefit plan, no protection from lay-offs); and 2) the young worker could quickly supplement the "permanent" work force in times of increased output. The major paths to succession of protected, tenured, permanent full-time "career" jobs presented by Freedman were: 1) age -- as the age of an individual increased, especially over age 25, chances of success increased; 2) sex -- men generally

succeeded in finding career jobs more often than women; 3) race -- white workers seemed to have better access to the ancilliary factors of success such as education, part-time work, and tenure; 4) part-time or seasonal work -- this gave an individual experience and knowledge of the world-of-work; 5) high school diploma -- this certified a person was old enough to participate in the workforce, as well as read, write, and compute; 6) tenure -- workers who could get part-time jobs and/or gained and then maintained employment in full-time jobs had greater opportunity to succeed to career employment. Based on Freedman's findings, this author chose to include age, race, labor force participation and educational attainment in analyses of the young men of the NLS.

Parnes and Kohen longitudinally analyzed cohorts of young man and young women who were non-college graduates, between the ages 16 and 21 in 1968, and participants in the National Longitudinal Survey (NLS) in 1968 and 1971. The authors measured the labor market status of these cohorts and the characteristics associated with improvement between 1968 and 1971 for each group. The major findings of this study supported the "patterns of succession" noted by Freedman. Additionally, a number of factors were cited by Parnes and Kohen as indicators of success. Educational attainment exhibited a strong influence on the earnings and occupational

positions of men. Labor market exposure (represented by age, with educational attainment controlled) was positively related to earnings and occupational status, and to upward movement in these variables for white man and to a lesser extent among black men. Like work experience, formal training (i.e., vocational training) appeared to be far more important in imparting a labor market advantage to white men. The main advantage of interfirm mobility was seen as a means of escape from low-paying, "secondary sector" jobs. Earnings premiums were found for those young men who could find satisfactory initial jobs and remain in them. Occupational information and knowledge of the world of work were noted to be positively related to wages and occupational status. Married males had better records with respect to virtually every measure of success. Parnes and Kohen surmised that this aspect of success may have been associated with an emplcyers preference for married workers. The authors, however, dismissed this argument and held that the association between marital status and success could be better explained by the greater motivation and sense of purpose married life may hold for a young man. The residential status of a young man was very important in determining occupational status and wages. City residents held jobs with significantly higher average wages, better occupational status, and moved up more rapidly in both areas. Young men of the South had lower wages and occupational status than young men

in other regions. The ability of a young man to obtain a job which was covered under union collective bargaining agreements was important. Union workers had higher wages; as much as 30 percent higher than non-union employees in some occupations. Private employment generally held wage advantages over government work for young men, however, the black/white wage ratio was higher for black men in government work than private employment.

The articles reviewed above reached three general conclusions regarding the labor market for young adults. First, discrimination in the labor market based on race and sex existed. Second, labor market information that specified job location, job performance, and job related behavior would help young job seekers in the labor market. Third, post-high school training opportunities needed further study, with discrimination of and Federal support for programs that demonstrated success in helping young adults transition to productive emplcyment. These conclusions are all relevant to the analyses of the five testable hypotheses in this thesis.

C. EXAMPLES OF CORPORATE HIRING PRACTICES FOR YOUNG ADULTS

The National Commission for Manpower Policy surveyed three companies in 1975. The companies surveyed were kept anonymous by the commission. The three companies combined had a total employment of about one million. One company was in the area of manufacturing, the other in utilities, and the third in

retail trade. The commission report did not specify any further detail on a company's products or industrial sector so as to protect the identity of each company. The commission stated that the three companies combined were not to be taken to represent the nation's private sector. Additionally, the commission stated that each company's survey responses were not to be taken to represent the respective sectors of manufacturing, utilities, or retail trade for the nation. The commission simply sought to better understand employer experience with, and perceptions of, young workers and youth access to jobs with career attributes. The three companies selected by the commission were selected on the basis of: 1) their ability to screen job applicants carefully with regard to work experience and educational qualifications; 2) their in-company training opportunities for employees; and 3) their size and internal organization. The companies responded to a series of questions that sought to clarify the employment behavior toward, and on the part of, young adults.

Apart from the survey, the commission studied the employment statistics for all companies in the manufacturing, utilities, and retail trade sectors. The commission noted that overall youth employment in these sectors varied widely -- -- high proportions of young adults were employed in the retail trade sector, low proportions of young adults were employed in the manufacturing sector, and low proportions of youth were employed in the utilities sector.

In a summarization of the major findings the commission presented the following:

-- Youths 16 to 21 constituted a surprisingly high proportion of total new hires in each of the survey companies. Between 35 percent and 47 percent of total new hires were in this age group.

-- A large majority of new youth hires in the 16-to-21 age group were in the 18-to-21 range (95 percent in the utility company, 75 percent in the retail company); they represented that larger proportion of the youth population that were out of school and available for full-time work.

-- Hiring among minority youths varied with 25 percent in the manufacturing company, 30 percent in the utility company, and 12 percent in the retail company.

-- The high school diploma was a credential seriously considered by employers. The educational distribution among the new hires 16 to 21 in the retail firm found 74 percent with a high school diploma or higher; 24 percent in school (secondary and post-secondary); and only 1.7 percent high school dropouts. For the manufacturer, the educational distribution of new hires showed 96 percent of salaried and 82 percent of hourly workers (new hires) were high school, technical school, or apprentice graduates or higher.

The remaining 4 percent of salaried and 18 percent of hourly workers included dropouts and workers still in high school. The utility firm did not report data pertaining to the educational level of new hires.

-- A substantial majority of youth were hired into families of jobs that appeared to have clear and recognized lines of progression.

-- A substantial majority of new youth hires had the same access to training and employer-supported educational opportunities (the latter applicable to the utility and manufacturing companies only) as did new adult hires in the same positions. Additionally, substantial numbers of youth workers utilized such opportunities as tuition-supported study programs.

-- Generally speaking, there were no major differences between young workers and adult workers in the objective data provided regarding on-the-job performance.

-- The utility company and the retail company had explicit personnel policies and practices that generally encouraged the hiring of youth by local operating units of their companies, and these firms were the most substantial users of young workers.

-- The manufacturing company, which had the highest on-line starting wage and the highest overall average hourly earnings, appeared to be the least frequent user of

workers; appeared to be the most seriously affected of the three employers, because of the nature of its work, by federal and state child labor laws and regulations, but was less concerned with the high school diploma as an entry standard; was less committed to formal training; reported less favorable perceptions of young workers' comparative job performance abilities; and appeared to be less involved in summer employment and work study programs.

-- The utility company, which had the next highest starting wage and average weekly earnings, appeared to be the heaviest user of young workers (especially young women) for full-time employment; had the most substantial commitment to training; and appeared to be substantially affected by state and federal child labor laws and regulations for 16-to-17-year-olds in four job categories.

-- The retail company, which had the lowest starting wages and lowest average weekly earnings, was the heaviest user of youth employment overall and especially of 16-to-17-year-olds, including high school students; was most consistently involved in summer employment and work-study programs; was least affected by federal and state child labor laws; and was best structured to accomodate student workers.

-- The objective and subjective information provided by the companies suggested that young workers had slightly higher absenteeism and quit rates. The commission maintained that entrance-level and low-wage jobs tended to produce this kind of behavior, irrespective of the characteristics of the jobholders.

-- The limited information available indicated that most young workers found jobs in large companies by word of mouth, most frequently from employees and school guidance counselors. The Employment Service, as other studies the commission reviewed had repeatedly shown, was responsible for only a minute portion of referrals among this age group.

-- Although evidence was mixed, it appeared that in large companies, federal and state child labor laws and regulations did not have as negative an effect on youth employment and work experience opportunities as was frequently presumed.

-- The extent of company involvement in special youth summer employment and work-study programs varied markedly between the three firms and depended primarily on business climate. Participation in such programs seemed to be based generally on ccrporate social responsibility, although for the utility and the retail company the programs were used extensively as recruitment mechanisms during times of company employment expansion.

The tentative conclusions reached by the commission based on the above findings are presented below.

-- The high proportion of young workers hired gave the clear impression that young workers were not substantially inferior to adult workers on the job and that the major obstacle to more employment and work experience opportunities for youth was the shortage of jobs in the economy.

-- The hours and conditions of work provisions of federal and state child labor regulations and the complexity and diversity of such laws did limit youth employment and work experience opportunities. Mere clarification and simplification would clearly serve to improve youth opportunities. But as several other studies (Delaney and Lesh, 1975) of the effects of these laws had indicated, the net employment effect on youth and work experience opportunities of such action would very likely be modest.

-- Even when opportunities existed for high initial wages (in the case, particularly, of the manufacturer) or for potentially rapid promotion (as in the case of the utility company), there were high rates of voluntary turnover among young workers. The process of work establishment involved a high measure of experimentation, and the notion that by matching young

school-leavers with jobs possessing clear career possibilities and high wages, one could "solve" the problem of youth unemployment, or guarantee a smooth transition to adult careers, seemed to miss the mark.

-- The presumption that young people were substantially excluded from access to entry-level jobs with career attributes in large companies did not seem to be valid across-the-board. Some companies wanted and needed young workers, actively recruited them, and were prepared to expend resources to train them. However, the commission agreed with past studies (Barton, 1975) that young adults were generally excluded from jobs with career attributes (adult-type jobs) until age 21 or later.

-- Summer employment and work-study programs provided small numbers of youth with excellent opportunities for entry into full-time employment with large companies. But as a major device for bridges between school and career-entry employment, such programs were significantly underdeveloped and underutilized. Employer interest in such programs seemed generally to stem more from a "social responsibility" rationale than from recruitment needs. The role of such programs in the youth transition processes in the years

ahead seemed to the commission to be largely determined by the overall tightness of labor demand, and only marginally by program restructuring or substantially greater funding.

-- The role of public employment services in the job search process for young workers appeared to be insignificant; this fact remained true even during periods of tight labor markets and deserved serious attention.

III. SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR VETERANS IN TRANSITION TO THE CIVILIAN WORKFORCE

A. INTRODUCTION

This chapter will provide the background necessary to test the five hypotheses of this thesis. In the literature reviewed distinct transition problems for veterans appeared. Along with this, the difficulty in measuring the military to civilian transition process is also discussed.

This thesis used entry-level payrate as the main measure of labor market success for new workers. Implied in this assumption was that the military services benefited young men if they received higher entry-level payrates than their competition. Alternative measures of labor market success, such as entry-level occupation and industry, were also examined but the main emphasis was placed in the payrate measure. As Leigh (1978) stated, despite the importance that workers seemed to place on jobs with promotion opportunities and job satisfaction, economists have historically focused the bulk of their attention on wage rates as a measure of labor market success.

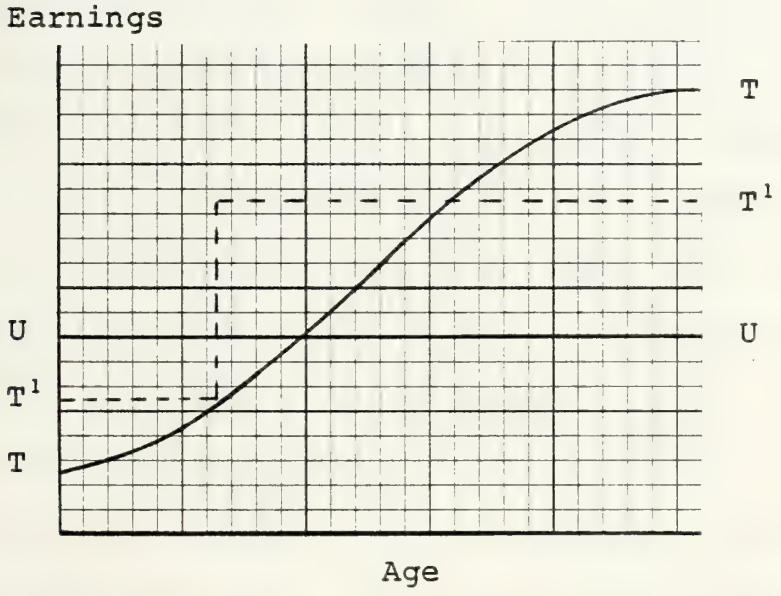
B. HUMAN CAPITAL THEORY AND MILITARY SERVICE

Some economists, most notably Becker (1975) and Mincer (1962), have argued that critical labor market skills were acquired on a job as well as in formal educational settings.

Leigh (1978) stated that much recent labor economics and industrial relations literature suggested that any training received after entry into the labor force be considered on-the-job training (OJT). OJT would include formal training programs such as apprenticeship training and the informal processes of learning from experience in the workplace. In this thesis, military service and any military training received while in-service were grouped together as OJT. Thus all veterans were placed in one category for both practical and analytical purposes. This classification meant that all veteran training, whether extensive technical training that few received or the standard recruit "boot camp" training that all members received, was considered as OJT. This treatment of military training considered military service itself as a measure of OJT, and seemed to be a viable way in which to regard human capital formation for members of the armed forces. The above decision was also influenced by the conflicting results of past studies that attempted to analyze specific types of military training in regard to civilian occupations and occupational status (Massell and Nelson, 1974; Norrblom 1976; O'Neill, Ross, and Warner, 1978; Trost and Warner, 1979; Fredland and Little, 1980; DeTray, 1980). Therefore, to avoid such conflict and better accomodate the data available for analyses, military service in this thesis is used as a general training variable much in the manner as other previous studies

(Oi, 1967; Miller and Tollison, 1971; Cutwright, 1974; Browning, Lopreato, and Poston, 1973; Lopreato and Poston, 1977; Little and Fredland, 1979). This decision also accommodated the investigation of hypothesis one from a human capital perspective.

The consideration of the aging process and the accumulation of OJT in the military was important. Insight into the relationship of earnings to age for the trained versus untrained person is given in the figure below from Becker (1975).



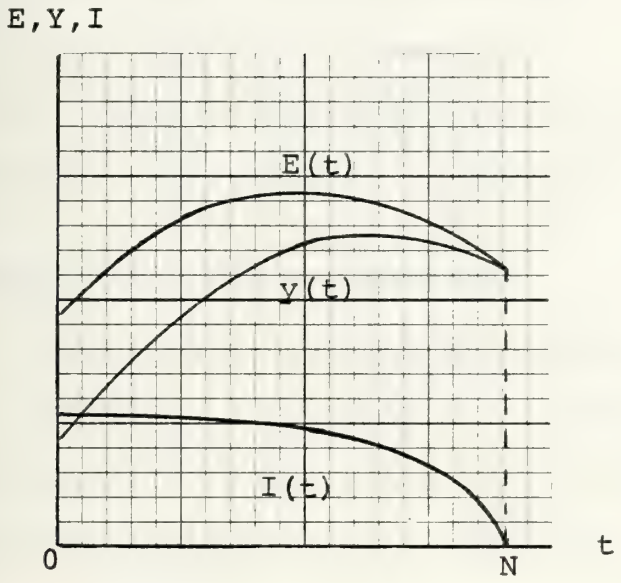
Relation of Earnings to Age

As shown in the horizontal line UU, the untrained persons are presumed to have the same earnings regardless of age. Trained persons, shown by TT, receive lower earnings in their

training period because training is paid for at that time. The training is paid for directly in the case of formal educational processes, or indirectly by foregone worker and supervisor productivity in the case of informal OJT. Higher earnings are shown at later ages because the return to training is collected then. The combined effect of paying for and collecting the return from training in this manner gives the age-earnings curve for trained persons. Becker proposed an example of showing an extreme case, shown by T^1T^1. In this example, training raised the level of marginal productivity but was independent of age. Becker stated that if earnings equalled marginal product, TT would be parallel to and higher than UU, showing neither slope or concavity. However, since earnings of trained persons would be below marginal productivity during the training period and equal afterward, the curve should rise sharply at the end of the training period and then level off (shown by the dashed line T^1T^1). In the example, the marked concavity appears (T^1T^1), in the less extreme cases the principle remains the same with the concavity continuous as in TT. Gay and Albrecht (1978) obtained very similar curves to TT in measuring OJT in military occupations. The authors substituted "productivity" for earnings and "years in service" in place of age, but arrived at conclusions similar to Becker. Thus the establishment of military service as a human capital investment alternative, at least

while in the service, may be supported, but, in terms of this thesis, the issue is still how much of this OJT can be transferred to civilian occupations.

Rosen (1976) provides an explanation of the relationship between current earnings, potential earnings, and investment in human capital that was of importance to this thesis. Leigh (1978) used the following figure to examine Rosen's findings.



Optimum trajectories of investment, potential earnings, and actual earnings.

In the figure, actual earnings at time t, y(t), differ from potential earnings, E(t), by the rate of investment in OJT, I(t). At t=0, entrance into the full-time workforce occurs and the level of earnings depends on the endowment of human capital. Once full time is devoted to work activities, the incentive to invest in OJT is maximum and the vertical

distance between E(t) and y(t) is relatively large. As age increases, the optimum earnings trajectories approach each other and at retirement (t=N) investments in OJT (I(t)) fall to zero. Thus, when measuring the benefits obtained in military service, the decision to measure "endowments" of human capital at full-time job entry was made. This treatment allowed a test of human capital accumulation through OJT in the military. The incentive to invest in civilian OJT for veterans was beyond the scope of this thesis, and only a small aspect of work activity OJT (use of civilian occupational training) was considered in analyses of veterans.

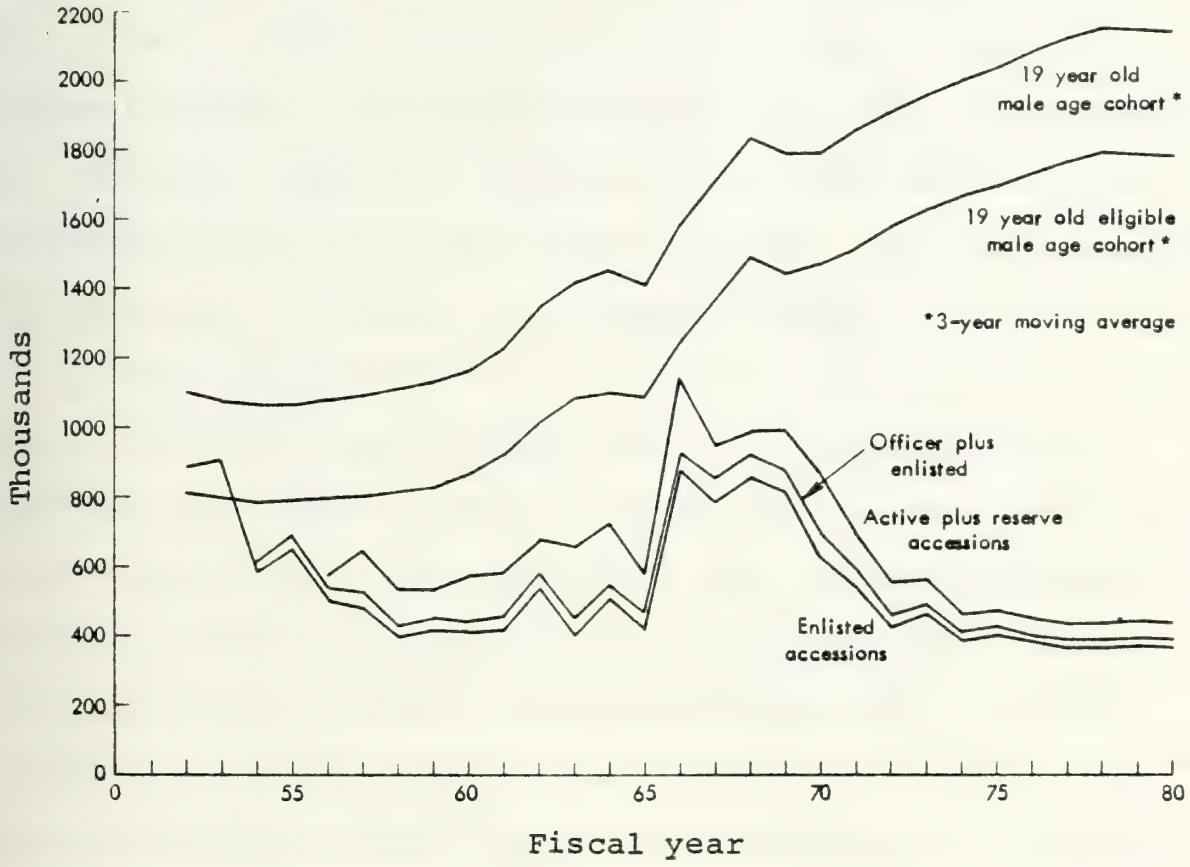
C. GENERAL PROBLEMS FOR VETERANS

1. Young Veteran Status in Civilian Society

Society, in general, could have been a distinct problem for the veterans in the years 1966 to 1973. The converse of this problem could also have been true. That is, these veterans could have presented problems to society. Perhaps there could have been no greater test of the societal benefits of military service than during this period. For as the nation later came to realize, these returning veterans (whether they had served in combat or not) were often the less privileged members of the Great Society.

Military service for the country's young adults had gradually changed over the years from a majority requirement to a selective one, even during the Vietnam years. This fact

was presented in an analysis of the All-Volunteer Force by Cooper (1978), and is shown in the figure below.



Military Manpower Procurement and Population Size

To give a few examples from the above figure, in 1954 roughly 85 percent of those eligible could expect to serve in the armed forces. By 1964 the proportion required to serve had fallen to below 50 percent, and by 1973 only about 25 percent were needed as new accessions by the services.

The hypotheses of this thesis focused on some of the more straightforward societal problems relevant to returning veterans. First, would there be discrimination against veterans or veteran status within society or in the labor

market? Second, could the veteran function well within this rapidly changing society, especially with the uncertain economic conditions of the late 1960s and early 1970s? Third, would society recognize any shortcomings in the in-service military process or the veteran transition process to civilian life? The labor economics aspects of the above questions are considered in NLS analyses in later chapters. However, a few observations are offered on the societal aspects.

History has shown that the American people have always welcomed returning veterans home in a noble manner. This period was no exception. This fact had a substantial impact on the functioning of these veterans within society. General societal acceptance is considered a significant aid in helping any veteran adjust properly from the institutional rigors of military life to the world of civilian responsibility. The third question still seems open for discussion from a societal perspective. Conscription was eliminated after 1972 as a method to obtain military accessions. At around the same time military wages increased (most notably for first-term personnel) to reflect comparable civilian labor force wages of young adults. However, recent events have signalled dilemmas for society in terms of both a suitable method of obtaining enough qualified young adults for military service, and a fair wage for those in the armed forces.

The armed forces have become much more than a process to adulthood. Whether this is recognized by society or those

within manpower policy groups is vital to future veterans. Society was considered a relevant variable in the analyses to follow, even though it cannot be entered directly with other variables. Society will inevitably make the decisions and bear the costs of future policies. Therefore, although the analytical considerations and deliberations that follow seem directed to specific groups or agencies, this thesis holds the utmost regard for the general welfare of society.

2. Demographics

During the years of the NLS, the nation adjusted to the post-World War II baby boom's maturation. The Panel on Youth of the President's Service Advisory Committee (1974) referred to the transition to adulthood of the youth of the 1950s and early 1960s as the socialization of successive "waves of barbarians." However, Freedman (1976) referred to the 1950s and 1960s as a "golden age" for young adult transition. Freedman contended that the growing economic hardships for young adults in the late 1960s and early 1970's presented "exceptional" transitional problems for manpower policymakers.

The veterans of this period were affected by the pressures of such a large youth cohort and the changing economic conditions.

Combined these effects seemed to present a "worst case analysis" for the veteral transition to the labor force.

This point is made more relevant when considering the NLS data analyses, for the perturbations of the economy, society, the political situations, and national-international events could not be captured in analyses of the data set.

3. Prevailing Attitudes in the Workplace

Kerr and Rosow (1979) and Dunnette (1973) reviewed the changing conditions of the 1960s and 1970s and presented the changes effecting the workplace. Both works cited that the world of work markedly changed during this period. Yankelovich (1979) stated that young adults in particular were responsible for the changing conditions in the workforce during this period. Unfortunately, many of the changes and problems of these times were masked by the failure of conventional methods of measuring changes in the work place, especially within the labor force (Freeman, 1979). For example, young school-age adults seemed to change their labor force participation habits over these years. These young people were working more, at varying times of the year, and not necessarily in accordance with the seasons of the year. Perhaps the most significant change came in the 10 million women increase in the labor force from 1965 to 1975. This increase signified a rise of over 40 percentage points for women and took labor force statisticians by surprise.

Although prevailing attitudes were in a state of flux for the NLS years, it would be unfair to simply attribute this

as a problem solely for young veterans. However, as a small group within the overall group of young adults, the veterans were certainly faced with the same challenges in the workplace by the older, established, and employed members of the world of work whose "traditional" values were being questioned. Thorough analyses and detailed accounts of the various changes in values that seemed to occur during this period can be found in the work of Kerr and Rosow (1979) or Dunnette (1973), but some major changes that effected the workplace and workforce are listed below.

-- Women no longer could afford to stay at home and not work a paid job. By 1970 38 percent of the work force were women, with women, as a group, experiencing a 43 percent labor force participation rate (Employment and Training Report of the President, 1970).

-- The "traditional worker" (married, male wage earner, wife present but not employed) declined from 30 percent to 14 percent of the labor force from 1960 to 1977 (Hayghe, 1978).

-- Jobs were no longer looked at as merely providing a decent living and economic security. Workers would no longer accept all a job's drawbacks, simply because the job enabled them to fulfill economic obligations (Yankelovich, 1979).

-- Labor productivity increased, but at a slow rate throughout the late 1960s and early 1970s. Productivity

growth simply could not keep pace with rising wages. As nominal output declined or kept steady, labor input was rising (Employment and Training Report of the President, 1970, 1977).

-- The percentage of white collar jobs steadily increased, and by 1976 an estimated 50 percent of all jobs in the U.S. work force were in the white collar sector (Employment and Training Report of the President, 1977).

4. College Education and Job Opportunities

Freeman (1975) and Freedman (1976) noted that despite evidence of falling economic returns young adults continued to increase their investments in college education throughout the late 1960s and early 1970s. Freeman figured that a one percent change in the ratio of college graduate wages to high school graduate wages would induce an increase of about 3.71 percent in the proportion of 18- and 19-year-olds who enroll in college. The contradiction between a rising investment in college education, in the face of a declining wage advantage and a positive and fairly inelastic wage elasticity of college participation, puzzled many economists. Arrow (1973) offered a hypothesis that education did nothing to improve the skills of individuals, but provided a signal to potential employers that the individual who held a degree possessed the personal characteristics (intellignece, motivation, perseverence, etc.) that would probably enable the individual to

be successful in the job. This so-called "screening hypothesis" has recently been contested in the economic literature, especially from the human capital theorists (Layard and Psacharopoulos, 1974; Wolpin, 1977; Bellante and Jackson, 1979). Bellante et al. (1979) analyzed a sampling of mean annual incomes in 1970 of males by age and education. The authors concluded that increasing incomes of men up to the 45-54 age group was the result of on-the-job training and experience. They defined experience as a form of on-the-job training, although it was not necessarily the result of conscious plans by workers toward that end (i.e. not a human capital investment decision). Experience tended to increase a worker's productivity, and Bellante et al. stated that this increase was reflected in increased earnings. They concluded that not all gain from acquiring additional education could be attributed to schooling, as the average native ability of college graduates was higher than that of high school graduates. Bellante et al. did not venture an estimate of the return to native ability as other authors (ranges of anywhere from zero (primarily from human capital theorists) to 50 percent, see Sahota, 1978), but simply stated that part of the higher income of a college graduate would inevitably be a return for ability, and not a return to educational investment.

From the above arguments it seemed that neither the screening hypothesis nor human capital theory fully explained

the attainment and use of college education, but combined, both perspectives provided understanding into the decision to invest in secondary education for eventual use in the labor market. Veterans considering college education would be helped considerably by relevant knowledge of the returns on investment in college education, both by past veteran and current nonveteran graduates. This point seems especially important given the substantial proportion of post-Korean veterans who chose to enter college institutions under the G.I. Bill (O'Neill et al., 1978).

5. High School Education and Job Opportunities

Tyler (1975) conducted an especially informative review of the competencies of young adults who did not invest in college education. After reviewing past surveys and studies on the aspirations and achievements of non-college bound young people from 1969 to 1974, Tyler offered the following conclusions. One, developing an interest in productivity and the desire to be productive were important factors in the education of youth for constructive work roles, but they had not been acquired through school experiences. Two, learning to take responsibility for a task and accepting the consequences of success or failure in performing it were other important aspects of education for adult work roles not primarily learned in school. Three, learning to take responsibility and bear the consequences required considerable

experience, with gradual increase in the degree of responsibility and in the seriousness of the consequences of failure. School alone could contribute only a minor range of learning experiences for this purpose. Four, situations that were perceived by young people as clearly real and adultlike were necessary. The school could help find such opportunities, but the school alone had very limited capabilities in educating youth in this essential area.

These important conclusions were based on assessments of the competencies of youth from data gathered by the National Assessment of Educational Progress. Tyler viewed the major findings of the data provided as: 1) approximately two-thirds of the initial jobs obtained by young people who did not go to college required little or no specific training; 2) knowledge of the world of work was generally low for most youth and was a source of frustration and confusion to those seeking work; 3) about 80 percent of a group of young adults surveyed could read simple material, compute, and write straightforward descriptions -- but only 40 percent could use computation appropriately in simple business transactions; 4) the following three reasons were commonly given by employers and company personnel directors for not hiring young adults:

-- When unemployment among adult workers was high, the company would have been severely criticized for employing youth rather than unemployed adults.

-- Under the minimum wages of the period ($1.60 per hour from 1968 to 1973), most youth were not competent enough to earn the minimum wage.

-- Unions objected to the employment of youth.

From the above findings, the military services were considered to provide a viable general training vehicle for high school graduates. Analytically establishing this point by measuring the benefits derived from military service in the above noted parameters, however, presented particular problems. First, measures of productivity, ability to assume responsibility, on-the-job and world-of-work experience, and ability to function in an adult world were difficult to define and assess. Second, an analysis which included draftees and draft-motivated enlistees would seem to be somewhat disadvantaged in establishing these benefits for veterans, especially as there exists no "forced-choice" mechanism in current economic theory.

IV. THE MILITARY TRANSITION TO WORK

A. NATIONAL, STATE AND LOCAL ASSISTANCE FOR VETERANS

1. The Veterans Administration

The most visible transition program for the young veteran of 1966 to 1973 was the longstanding G.I. Bill for educational benefits administered by the Veterans Administration. Veterans participation in training under this bill was fairly low until 1971, when monetary assistance for students increased by approximately 33 percent and a recessionary economy weakened the labor market (Waldman and Gover, 1971). By 1973 veteran participation in G.I. Bill educational programs increased to 50 percent of Vietnam-era veterans, aided again by an increase in monetary benefits and an uncertain economy. The statistics relating to veteran participation supplied by the Veterans Administration (1973) will be examined in detail. The table below shows a cross-section of the veteran percentages in secondary (college) education in 1973 versus nonveteran percentages, all figures are for men.

1973 Percentages In College Education

AGE	20 To 34	20 To 24	25 To 29	30 To 34
Veterans	14	17	15	9
Nonveterans	17	27	10	4

The table gives some indication of the trends shown in veteran educational participation as discussed by Gover and McEaddy (1974) for the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The authors found that veterans over 25 were increasingly entering school to complete or further their education, while nonveterans of the same ages were more likely to have finished high school, finished their secondary education, and then entered the full-time labor force. This study also found that nonveterans were more likely than veterans to be full-time college students, with the proportions changing markedly as different age groups were considered. As of October 1973, about 800,000 veterans in the 20 to 34 age group were enrolled in college, but only 53 percent of them were full-time students. This contrasted to the 72 percent of the nonveterans in this age group. Two-thirds of the full-time veteran students were enrolled in four-year colleges, with the part-time veteran students divided evenly between two and four-year institutions. This study confirmed the fact that college student labor force participation was the rule rather than the exception. Veteran students showed a labor force participation rate of 78 percent, while nonveterans had a 60 percent rate in 1973. Gover and McEaddy attributed this difference to three factors. One, proportionately more of the veterans were in their mid to late twenties and had previously been full-time workers. Two, veterans were

predominately part-time students, especially the older veterans. Three, veterans who were students were also more likely to be married (65 percent) than nonveterans (27 percent) so despite financial aid from the G.I. Bill, family responsibilities may have required substantially more veterans to work while furthering their education.

The proceeding study seemed to establish a pattern for Vietnam veteran participation in educational training. From this, the following aspects were especially important concerns to an analysis of veterans and nonveterans using NLS data. First, the veterans under consideration in the NLS should show a high labor force participation rate, with steadily increasing educational attainment as they grew older. Second, these educational levels (and the aging) of NLS veterans should be masked to a degree by the entrance of recently discharged, younger veterans of average education into the NLS as the years of the survey unfolded. Third, the longitudinal tracking of any veteran and nonveteran cohort during the NLS survey years of 1966 to 1973 seemed a particularly difficult and possible misleading undertaking.

In regard to the last statement, three points should be considered in analyzing young veterans from either a vocational training or formal education perspective. One, veterans chose to invest in post-service education or training at much older ages than nonveterans. Two, veterans should generally take longer to complete degree or training requirements because of part-time participation in education or

training. Three, the choice to invest in post-service education or training is different between veterans and non-veterans as the G.I. Bill paid a major portion of the costs. These considerations may present problems in a longitudinal analysis. For example, an analyses of veterans and non-veterans, in terms of benefits from civilian education or training, may be biased against veterans in a short run analysis that does not consider the factors noted above.

2. Other Federal Veteran Assistance Programs

At the Federal level, Project Transition (administered by the Department of Defense); and Employment Services, Unemployment Compensation for Ex-Servicemen, and Reemployment Rights (all administered by the Department of Labor) were among the continuing programs and benefits for veterans of the NLS years. Additionally, in 1972 President Nixon announced a six-point veterans program providing substantial increases in veteran job counseling, placement, and training benefits. This program also assisted in creating job opportunities in private industry through such organizations as the National Alliance of Businessmen. By the end of June 1972 over a third of all veterans had received some type of counseling for jobs under Project Transition (Michellotti and Gover, 1972). The programs at the Federal level were ambitious but their overall impact on the veteran transition process into civilian jobs was difficult to measure in terms of usage data and job entry statistics.

3. State and Local Veteran Assistance Programs

Waldman and Gover (1971) reported on the new programs for veteran transition that were being attempted with joint Department of Defense, Department of Labor, state and local cooperation. One program trained men while still in service in skills that were in demand in the geographic area to which they would be returning. Other programs used facilities of joint Federal, state and local agencies in placing veterans in jobs and making job opportunities known to servicemen prior to release from the military. As the economy continued to fluctuate in the later years of the war (1971-1974) additional programs among Federal, state and local agnecies were created to help veterans. However, as Stinson (1979) noted, problems for young veterans, especially minorities were prevelent over these years. The programs lacked sufficient participation when economic conditions grew worse, the programs were generally ineffectual in helping veterans with job entry problems. An opinion on Federally-assisted youth transition programs from the National Commission for Manpower Policy (1975) seemed relevant to this problem. Commission members saw difficulties in most of these programs caused by a lack of inter-Federal and intra-Federal agency cooperation and collaboration. This prevented the proper dissemination of materials and proper oversight by Federal agencies. The commission members saw the problem compounded at the local level where implementation

and experimentation was required (Barton, Gallagher, and Tyler, 1975). Barton summarized the above opinion and recommended that future policy in such manpower programs evolve after the fact from evaluation of local initiatives rather than the setting of policy before implementation.

B. EDUCATION AND VETERAN STATUS

Two points are important to consider in this review of the educational attainment of young veterans. First, to what extent was selectivity, based on educational attainment, practiced in armed forces' accession policy in the NLS years? Second, the significance of this selecitvity on the analyses of the NLS (a "selectivity bias") should be considered. This section will attempt to show if the selectivity reflected in armed forces accession policy would bias an analysis of veterans and nonveterans in the NLS in favor of the veterans. Cooper (1977) provided two tables in his review of the AVF. These tables are shown below.

Educational Attainment of Enlisted Accessions and the U.S. Male Population
(percent)

Maximum Educational Attainment	Enlisted Accessions[a]		U.S. Male Population[b]			
			All	Not in School		Blue Collar
	Draft	AVF	18-22	18-24	18-21	25-44
College Grad.	3	1	8	7	1	3
Some College	13	5	26	13	12	12
High Schl. Grad.	54	59	41	46	49	48
Some High Schl.[c]	26	35	19	22	27	21
Elementary	4	1	6	11	12	16

[a]Source: OASD(M&RA). Draft-Jan 71-Dec 72; AVF-Jan 73-Jun 75.

[b]Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census and U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1970.

[c]Includes GEDs -- i.e., those who have passed a general high school equivalency test, but who do not possess a high school diploma.

Educational Attainment of All Male Military Personnel and the U.S. Male Population[a]
(percent)

	Male Military Personnel[b]						U.S. Male Population[c]		
	All		Officers		Enlisted		20-29	20-44	
Year	HSG	CG	HSG	CG	HSG	CG	HSG	HSG	CG
1952	58	8	96	47	53	3	60	51	n.a.
1956	60	9	98	56	55	3	66	58	12
1960	70	9	99	57	66	2	71	63	n.a.
1965	84	9	100	72	82	1	74	67	15
1970	87	15	100	79	85	6	78	72	16
1972	83	14	100	85	81	3	82	76	18
1974	88	13	100	89	87	2	83	78	19
1976	89	13	100	91	87	2	84	79	20

[a]High school graduate (HSG); college graduate (CG).

[b]Source: Selected Manpower Statistics.

[c]Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

A more detailed analysis of the military accessions of the year 1966 to 1973 would be substantially similar to the above tables. Two distinct factors emerge in examination of the tables and related data. One, in a short-run or young adult (20-35 year-olds) analysis of veterans versus nonveterans from the NLS, the veteran groups should not exhibit an educational attainment advantage immediately after leaving the

service. Two, differences between veterans and nonveterans may increase as time progresses. Labor force participation rates, educational attainment, or age differences between veterans and nonveterans may become more obvious at later stages of life (35 to 50 year-olds). The selectivity of armed forces accession policy in educational attainment may appear later, and distinguish veterans from nonveterans, especially in the blue-collar labor force. Both of the above aspects were noted by Stinson (1979) in a review of Vietnam-era veteran performance in the labor market. Little and Fredland (1979) lend support for the second aspect noted above in a study using the NLS of men 45-59 in 1966. Significant earnings benefits were attributed to veteran status in this analysis of older men.

Based on the above arguments, this thesis assumed that a selectivity bias in educational attainment favoring veterans was of minimal impact on analyses because of the time horizon used in comparison. Bias was further minimized by the method of analysis used. That is, by employing an analytical method that compared different groups at the same point in their economic life cycle, rather than compare groups longitudinally, a more objective presentation of veteran versus nonveteran performance in the labor force was obtained.

V. METHODOLOGY OF ANALYSES

A. MEASURING THE TRANSITION FROM MILITARY SERVICE TO WORK

1. Data

Data for the analytical tests of the five hypothesis came from the National Longitudinal Survey (NLS) of young men who ranged in age from 14 to 24 in 1966. The survey was collected by the U.S. Manpower Administration of the Department of Labor and distributed by the Center for Human Resources Research at Ohio State University. Five thousand two hundred and twenty-five young men were sampled initially. Over 4300 variables were created over the seven panels of the survey from 1966 to 1973. The survey was not conducted in 1972. All analyses performed in this thesis used young men from the NLS.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Veterans Administration have defined Vietnam-era veterans as personnel who served in the armed forces between August 5, 1964 and May 7, 1975. To participate in any NLS analysis, veterans additionally had to be members of the civilian noninstitutional population. These parameters did not pose any problem for this thesis. Only two percent of the veterans in the NLS were not Vietnam-era veterans. This same group was included in all analyses as their veteran benefits were virtually identical to Vietnam-era veteran benefits. Also the group

was small (so as not to bias analytical results), and Vietnam-era veteran status, though important, was not a vital facet of this thesis. Veterans were selected for analyses in this thesis only if they had served six months or more in the military, thereby qualifiying for the greatest share of veteran's benefits provided at that time. The veterans in this thesis generally served a single term of enlistment, with only two percent of the veterans indicating military service of more than one enlistment. This figure was based on the general enlistment contract of two to four years during this period. Significant percentages of veterans in the NLS were draftees, and there was no method of separating draft-motivated enlistees from "true" enlistees for analyses.

2. Analytic Method

Determining the analytical process and method which best explained the effects of military service involved a number of steps. Based on previously mentioned constraints, a longitudinal analysis of a cohort of like-endowed veterans and non-veterans over the NLS years was not conducted. Multivariate regression analysis for each NLS year was performed on the young men who obtained full-time jobs that year. The results provided equations that explained statistically significant amounts of the variance in mean payrates and wages for new workers. The regression analyses were conducted on a general group of all young men over the age 16, regional sub-groups,

and specific age sub-groups (i.e., 20-24 year-olds, 21 year-olds, etc.). The regression analyses produced statistically significant results in explaining payrates and wages, and gave important predictors. The equations generally had coefficients of determination (r-squared) values between .25 and .60, but the major predictors in the equations varied between age, marital status, educational achievement, educational ability, and residential status. A dummy variable was used to indicate veteran status in the equations. This variable vacillated in significance as a predictor in the equations, but often showed strong correlations with the most important predictors. These results were verified in results from full or saturated regression analysis and analysis of variance. The veteran status variable was found to have strong multicollinearity (sometimes positive, sometimes negative) with the above mentioned predictors of payrates and wages.

Discrimination analysis provided a technique that enabled the veteran and nonveteran groups to be separated and analyzed on a variable-by-variable basis. Variables were selected for analyses based on their previously determined importance in regression analyses and verified and augmented as important job entry-level variables from the previously reviewed literature on the youth labor force. Originally, payrate and wage were both used as variables, but since the results with both variables were essentially the same, only

the more recognizable payrate variable is reported. Simply stated, the discriminant analysis technique provided the following features: 1) limiting the veteran and nonveteran groups in analyses to only those members who had observations on all variables under review; 2) computing the means and standard deviations on each variable for each group; 3) comparing the means and standard deviations for each group and then computing the statistical singificance and confidence level of the difference of means between groups for each variable; 4) predicting or classifying individuals of unknown status into either the veteran or nonveteran group based on the unknown member's characteristics on the variables analyzed, and then calculating the percentage of "correct" predictions. The last aspect of discriminant analysis was used simply to verify findings of the analyses. The classification feature was not used to actively support or dispute any findings or related hypotheses.

Analyses was conducted on variables in each NLS year. Veteran and nonveteran status was determined and each group was separately analyzed on the same variables. Only young men indicating "new worker" status were analyzed. New workers were defined as those young men who were over age 16, fully employed, working over 35 hours a week, and having started work on their job in the particular year under review. Rather than weight cases to reflect the approximate 20 percent

oversampling of blacks in the NLS (Parnes and Miljus 1971), blacks and whites were separated for all analyses. This meant that in the veteran versus nonveteran analyses groups of black nonveterans and veterans were analyzed separately from groups of white nonveterans and veterans. Separate analyses was also conducted on Southern state residents and Nonsouthern state residents to further investigate segmented labor market theory. Another separate series of analyses of young men 20 to 24 years old in each NLS year was performed to test how veterans performed in this competitive area.

Two general notes on the NLS should be considered prior discussion of the variables. First, the NLS veteran cohort did not increase at the same rate as the nation's veteran population between the years 1967-1968, and 1968-1969. This fact was uncovered in comparison of NLS figures with Bureau of Labor Statistics Reports. This factor did not present any problem in the analyses, other than smaller NLS sample sizes for veteran groups in 1968 and 1969 which were considered to reflect the lower than nationwide distribution of veterans present in the NLS. The second note on the NLS regards the black veteran population of the NLS. Even with the NLS oversampling of blacks noted above, all analyses of black veterans prior to 1971 were based on small samples. This factor, coupled with rigorous analytical thechniques, provided black veteran sample sizes below ten cases for most levels of

analysis until the later years. A related factor for the black veteran sample was the very low representation of black veterans in the Nonsouthern regional analyses. This produced case counts below ten in all NLS years. Rather than dismiss this group from the findings due to small cell sizes, results are reported for three reasons. One, the rigor of the discriminant analysis technique accomodated small cell sizes in an acceptable manner. Two, the black veteran and nonveteran populations analyzed were representative of nationwide populations. Three, the black groups were considered an essential element to the work of this thesis.

3. The Variables

-- Age (AGE) This variable measured the age of a young man in a survey year.

-- School Grade Completed (GRCP) This variable reflected the highest school grade completed for a respondent as of the survey year.

-- Index of Socioeconomic Level of Parental Family (SOCIOEC6) This variable was based on five components: father's occupation, father's education, mother's education, education of the oldest other sibling of the family, and availability of reading material in the home. The variable used the Duncan Index to assign a code to the father's occupation, and was considered not applicable for a respondent if he had more than two missing

answers to the five items. The variable showed the socioeconomic background of the respondent at the age 14 and ranged from a low of 21 to a high of 158 among all respondents.

-- Intelligence Quotient (IQ) The variable showed the respondent's IQ. It was based on standard methods for determining IQ (i.e., Large-Thorndike Intelligence Test), and non-standard methods (i.e., estimating IQ from grade point average). This variable probably caused the most cases, elegible for consideration in all other respects, to be dropped from analysis because of missing values. Only 65 percent of the 5225 young men had IQ scores in the NLS. The scores ranged from a low of 50 to a high of 158. The NLS IQ variable showed remarkable statistical similarity (i.e. mean, standard deviation, skewness, etc.) to other nationwide surveys of IQ scores for both blacks and whites at that time.

-- Hourly Rate of Pay (PAYRATE) This variable gave the hourly rate of pay for a respondent in a survey year.

-- Civilian Occupational Training (CIVTRA) This variable reflected use of any form of civilian occupational training on-the-job in a survey year. The types of training included were: managerial, clerical, skilled manual, and professional/technical (general

vocational) training. The variable specifically did not include the use of any previous military training on-the-job in a survey year. This variable was not available in the 1973 NLS panel.

-- Census Division of Residence (CDRES) This variable gave the general area of residence for a respondent each year from 1966 to 1970. A number was assigned to each region. The Nonsouthern regions were numbered:

REGION	CODE
NEW ENGLAND	1
MIDDLE ATLANTIC	2
EAST NORTH CENTRAL	3
WEST NORTH CENTRAL	4
MOUNTAIN	8
PACIFIC	9

The Southern regions were numbered:

REGION	CODE
SOUTH ATLANTIC	5
EAST SOUTH ATLANTIC	6
WEST SOUTH CENTRAL	7

In 1971 and 1973 the NLS coding system changed for this variable and reflected only Southern residence (South Atlantic, East South Atlantic, and West South Central -- codes 5, 6, and 7 above) and Nonsouthern residence (codes 1, 2, 3, 4, 8 and 9 above). In regional analyses this variable was dropped from consideration.

-- Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA) This variable gave the residence for a respondent each year and was coded: 1 - central city SMSA; 2 - contiguous suburb of central city SMSA; 3 - non-SMSA.

-- Occupation of Father or Head of Household (FDUNC) This variable used the Duncan Index to show the father's (or head of household's) status when the respondent was age 14. It was used as an approximation for general economic background of the respondent and ranged from a low of 4 to a high of 96.

-- Marital Status (MARSTA) This variable reflected the respondent's marital status for a NLS year in the following codes:

1 MARRIED SPOUSE PRESENT
2 MARRIED SPOUSE ABSENT
3 WIDOWED
4 DIVORCED
5 SEPARATED
6 NEVER MARRIED

-- Occupation (OCC) This variable gave the respondent's occupation on current job and used the below listed codes:

OCC. CODES

1 PROFESSIONAL, TECHNICAL, AND KINDRED
2 MANAGERS, OFFICIALS, AND PROPRIETORS
3 CLERICAL AND KINDRED
4 SALES WORKERS
5 CRAFTSMEN, FOREMEN, AND KINDRED
6 OPERATIVES AND KINDRED
7 PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD WORKERS
8 SERVICE WORKERS, EXCEPT PRIVATE HOUSELOLD
9 FARMERS AND FARM MANAGERS
10 FARM LABORERS AND FOREMEN
11 LABORERS, EXCEPT FARM AND MINE

-- Industry (IND) This variable gave the respondents industry of current job for an NLS year. It used the codes indicated below:

IND. CODES

1 AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY, AND FISHERIES
2 MINING
3 CONSTRUCTION
4 MANUFACTURING
5 TRANSPORTATION, COMMUNICATION, PUBLIC UTILITIES
6 WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE
7 FINANCE, INSURANCE, AND REAL ESTATE
8 BUSINESS AND REPAIR SERVICES
9 PERSONAL SERVICES
10 ENTERTAINMENT AND RECREATION SERVICES
11 PROFESSIONAL AND RELATED SERVICES
12 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

-- Index of Internal versus External Control (ROTTER) This variable gave an indication of whether a respondent considered his actions and life governed by forces beyond his control (i.e., fate, luck, fortune) -- external, or within his control (i.e., his mistakes, his hard work, his perseverence) -- internal. A typical question in the test used in determining scores would be, "To what extent do you consider future success determined by good luck?" The answers would range from the low numbered choices to denote internal control (i.e., "1 - Not at all", "2 - Very little"), with the higher numbered answers to denote external control (i.e., "3 - Very much", "4 - Totally"). The lower the ROTTER score the less

(more) belief in external (internal) control of actions and life is indicated for a respondent.

Results of detailed analyses are presented in Appendices A through G and discussed in the next two chapters. Each Appendix is in sequence by NLS year from 1966 (Appendix A) through 1973 (Appendix G). In each Appendix the "table code" is as follows:

TABLE	SUBJECT
1	LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES, UNEMPLOYMENT RATES, SCHOOL PARTICIPATION RATES -- ALL GROUPS
2	DISCRIMINANT ANALYSES -- OVERALL GROUP
3	DISCRIMINANT ANALYSES -- NONSOUTHERN GROUP
4	DISCRIMINANT ANALYSES -- SOUTH GROUP
5	DISCRIMINANT ANALYSES -- 20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP
6	DETAILED ANALYSES -- OCCUPATIONS
7	DETAILED ANALYSES -- IDUSTRIES

In each discriminant analysis table levels of significance are denoted by asterisks and placed next to the variable's means and standard deviations under the group it was thought to favor. That is, if a nonveteran group indicated an average of 15 years of educational achievement (GRCP) and a veteran group averaged 12 years and the difference was at the significant level the asterisk would be under the "nonveteran" column as this was thought to favor the nonveterans at job entry. The decision that a "score" on a variable favored one

group over the other was based primarily on the literature review previously reported, and general principles of human capital theory, segmented labor market theory, or the screening hypothesis. The following variables were analyzed in this manner: 1) AGE - older ages were thought more desirable than younger ages; 2) GRPC - higher grade completed averages were thought more desirable than lower grade completed; 3) SOCIOEC6 - higher scores were thought more desirable than lower scores; 4) IQ - same as (3); 5) PAYRATE - higher payrates were considered more desirable than lower payrates; 6) CIVTRA - a higher total for civilian occupational training use was thought more favorable than lower totals; 7) CDRES - no determination was made as to what the totals signified between groups other than a difference in mean area of residence. The variable was included only in analyses of the OVERALL and 20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP to test if any significant differences existed in residency for veterans and non-veterans; 8) SMSA - a lower total (indicating higher proportions of SMSA residents) was considered superior to a higher total; 9) FDUNC - same as SOCIOEC6 above; 10) MARSTA - a lower "score" in this variable indicated a tendency toward greater familial responsibilities and was considered a motivational factor, thus lower marital status scores were considered more advantageous to higher scores; 11) OCC - and 12) IND - no hard determination of favorability existed

for these variables, expecially since they were based on one-digit occupation and industry codes; therefore when significant differences were found the asterisk(s) are placed between the two columns indicating the inability to determine which group the difference favored; this problem is discussed and further analyzed in Chapter 6; 13) ROTTER - based mostly on subjective judgement that a lower ROTTER score was more favorable than a higher score.

VI. CROSS-SECTIONAL ANALYSIS OF JOB ENTRY-LEVEL CHARACTERISTICS 1966-1973

A. INTRODUCTION

Cross-sectional analyses of job entry-level characteristics with the NLS from 1966 to 1973 allowed the thorough testing of two of the five hypotheses of this thesis. As previously mentioned, measuring the endowments of workers at job entry-level, before the accumulation of job-specific OJT, was important in testing the hypotheses of this thesis. The first two hypotheses were related to this measurement of individual talents. Hypothesis one proposed that military service provided benefits of increased productivity, maturity, and experience that paid-off for veterans at civilian job entry. This hypothesis was tested in the analyses reported in this chapter with entry-level payrates. Hypothesis two tested the theory that veteran status provided employers with a screen in hiring new workers and that veterans may be considered among the "credentialed" job seekers by employers. This hypothesis was tested by discriminant analysis and the findings are reported in this chapter. Entry-level payrates and unemployment rates were the most relevant areas in the test of this hypothesis. Hypothesis three required the measurement of veteran job status in terms of entry-level occupation and industry and payrates. These measurements called for more detailed analysis than was available in

the cross-sectional findings, although the differences between veterans and nonveterans noted in entry-level occupations and industries offered adequate reason for further analysis in testing hypothesis three. Hypothesis four contended that veterans could be distinguished from nonveterans by different marital statuses and school participation rates. Marital status was examined in discriminant analysis and the findings are reported in this chapter. School participation rates are not analyzed cross-secionally. The fifth hypothesis of this thesis proposed that military service provided upward mobility to veterans. The tests for this hypothesis required more detail than cross-sectional analysis could provide. That is, to gain insight into upward mobility for veterans, it was not considered sufficient to simply measure entry-level payrates, occupations, and industries. All variables were brought into the analysis of hypothesis five. The cross-sectional findings presented in this chapter indicated that more thorough analysis was required to test this hypothesis.

Cross-sectional analysis adequately tested two of the five hypotheses and provided justification for further analysis or partial tests of the remaining hypotheses. Cross-sectional analysis provided insight into aspects of the NLS data that were masked in longitudinal analysis. However, an advantage of the NLS lies in the ability to observe behavior over time. This aspect of the data set was used in this thesis in two ways. First, the hypotheses

that required time-series analysis were able to be tested. Second, the hypotheses that were tested in cross-sectional analyses could be further tested in longitudinal analyses.

Each year four general groups of young men were selected from the NLS. Each of the four groups was subdivided into four subgroups before any analysis was performed. The first general group (OVERALL) was young men who were over 16 years old. The second general group (NONSOUTH) was young men who were over 16 years old and had residences outside the Southern states. The third general group (SOUTH) was the young men who were over 16 years old who resided in the Southern states. The fourth general group (20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP) was the young men between the ages 20 to 24 in each survey year. In 1973 this last group consisted of only 21 to 24 year-olds, as the NLS had no young men under 21 years of age that year. Each general group was further subdivided into four groups for analysis. The four subdivisions of each group were white nonveterans, white veterans, black nonveterans, and black veterans. Among these subgroups only members of the same race were compared in job entry-level analysis. Therefore, only the white veteran versus the white nonveteran or the black veteran versus the black nonveteran sub-groups were contrasted in all other analyses.

In the narrative to follow, two factors are reviewed to show the general labor market conditions for the groups. These factors are labor force participation rate and

unemployment rate. For purposes of computing labor force participation rate (LFPR) and unemployment rate (UNEM), all members of the above groups were considered in the computations, with the exception of those who indicated they had never worked. The rates were computed in accordance with the methods of the Bureau of Labor Statistics (1976). School participation rate full-time (SPR-FT) was computed from NLS labor force data that showed a young man out of the labor force due to school attendance. SPR-FT was computed for each group of veterans and nonveterans by dividing the number of each group indicating "out of labor force, attending school" by each group's total of young men over 16 years old who had ever worked. School participation rate part-time (SPR-PT) was computed from NLS labor force data that showed a young man attending school and holding full-time employment (working over 35 hours a week). SPR-PT was computed for each group of veterans and nonveterans by dividing the number of each group indicating "fully employed, working over 35 hours a week and attending school" by each group's total of young men over 16 years old who had ever worked. The analyses of school participation rates is reported in the next chapter.

The job entry-level analysis conducted on the above groups used the discriminant analysis technique from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The analysis concerned only young men who indicated full-time employment, worked over 35 hours per week, and started

work on their job in the NLS year under review. These young men are generally called "new workers" in the text, although they may have had prior jobs on either a full-time or part-time basis. The findings reported for the job entry-level analysis give only the major results for each group by NLS year.

Results are often stated in key words and phrases which convey the relevant findings. School grade completed (GRCP) will often be referred to as educational attainment while intelligence quotient score (IQ) will often be called educational ability. Socioeconomic background was based on the SOCIOEC6 variable, while economic background was reflected in the FDUNC score of a young man's father. Rotter internal-external score differences were not specifically interpreted, but merely noted to show the groups with marked differences. In referring to differences noted in the job entry-level portion of this narrative, the term "significant" and derivations thereof are repeatedly used. This term is used to denote the statistically determined significance of differences indicated in computational analysis of the sample under review. As previously discussed, the discriminant analysis technique as used, computed a level of significance between two groups for a variable based on a one-way analysis of variance of the group means on the variable with a concomitant F-test. Thus, the confidence of stating "significant" for the differences noted between two groups is based on the

F-test score and the level of significance for this score. For the purpose of this narrative, only differences where the statistics implied a 90 percent or higher level of confidence are termed "significant" differences. In the appendices these significant differences are denoted by an asterisk(s) indicating the ten percent, five percent, and one percent level(s) of significance of the F-test. The discussion to follow is based on the tables provided in Appendices A through G. The figures of Appendix H were compiled from these tables and will be discussed in the next chapter.

B. CROSS-SECTIONAL ANALYSES OF JOB ENTRY-LEVEL CHARACTERISTICS

1. 1966 - Overall (16 Years-Old and Above)

The low labor force participation rate of 76.9 percent and high unemployment rate of 7.4 percent for white nonveterans was related to the finding that over 50 percent of the white nonveteran sample was in the 16 to 19 age group. Black nonveterans had a higher proportion of 16 to 19 year-olds than the white nonveterans, but had higher labor force participation (81.9 percent) and almost twice the unemployment rate (12.8 percent) of white nonveterans. Veterans showed high labor force participation rates averaging 96 percent and low unemployment. Although black veteran unemployment was below either black or white nonveteran unemployment, black veteran unemployment (5.3 percent) was five times that of white veteran unemployment.

Analysis of the new workers in this group revealed that both white and black veterans were significantly older than nonveterans at job entry. The black veteran was almost a year older than the white veteran. White veterans significantly outperformed white nonveterans in entry-level payrates. White veterans had a significantly different marital status, and had significantly lower scores on the Rotter variable. Black nonveterans were similar to white nonveterans only in age, while coming from lower socio-economic backgrounds, having lower educational levels, and IQ scores than white nonveterans. The black veterans in this sample were actually more similar to white nonveterans from the perspective of educational level and IQ. Black veterans had significantly higher entry-level payrates than black nonveterans. A three year age margin and entry-level occupation and industry were factors that differentiated the black veteran from the black nonveteran in this analysis.

2. 1966 - Nonsouth

Regional analysis did not disclose much difference from the overall findings described above. Black and white nonveterans in this region had higher labor force participation rates than their corresponding groups in the overall sample. Unemployment rates for both groups were also higher than the overall averages of all nonveterans. Veteran labor force participation and unemployment in this region was close

to overall percentages, with black veteran unemployment a full percentage point lower in this region.

In discriminant analysis of the characteristics of the new workers, white veterans had significantly higher entry-level payrates than white nonveterans, but white veteran payrates were below black veteran payrates. In the analysis of black veterans and black nonveterans, black veterans were distinguished from black nonveterans by the higher use of occupational training and a residence outside the SMSA center-city. Black veterans had significantly higher entry-level payrates than black nonveterans.

3. 1966 - South

Nonveterans in this region had lower labor force participation rates and unemployment rates than nonveterans of the overall group. The veterans in this region showed the same labor force characteristics as in the previously described groups -- high labor force participation and low unemployment rates. Black veterans, with a 6.3 percent unemployment rate, had six times the unemployment of white veterans.

Each veteran group had significantly higher entry-level payrates than the contrasting nonveteran group. Veterans were found to be older than nonveterans. Black veterans and black nonveterans had a significnat difference in entry-level occupation.

4. 1966 - 20-24 Year-Old Age Group

Labor force participation rates for white (86.8 percent) and black (94.0 percent) nonveterans were high in contrast to the overall group percentages, but these rates were below the labor force participation rates of the veterans. Unemployment rates for nonveterans in this age group were well below overall and regional rates, but blacks (both nonveteran and veteran) had disproportionately high unemployment rates with black veterans showing the highest unemployment rate of any group.

In discriminant analysis, the veteran groups were found to have a significant within group age advantage. This was in contrast to the significant differences in socioeconomic and educational backgrounds favoring nonveterans, especially the white nonveterans. White veterans had higher entry-level payrates than white nonveterans. Black veterans were found to have significant differences from black nonveterans in entry-level occupation and industry. Black veterans had significantly higher payrates than black nonveterans.

5. 1967 - Overall (16 Years-Old and Above)

As the NLS grew older, more workers entered the labor force. In fact, this would be the last year in the NLS in which any young men below the age of 16 would be surveyed. White nonveteran labor force participation increased two percentage points over the previous year while the unemployment

rate went down about one percent. Black nonveteran labor force participation decreased about one percent while unemployment continued to increase. This decreasing participation rate and higher unemployment rate of black nonveterans was also found in regional analyses. Black nonveteran unemployment was more than twice white nonveteran unemployment while black nonveteran labor force participation rates were comparable to white nonveteran rates. Veterans were found to have very high labor force participation rates with low rates of unemployment. Black veterans had only fractionally higher unemployment rates than white nonveterans.

In analysis of job entry characteristics, white veterans were found to have significantly higher payrates than white nonveterans. Other variables that were found to significantly differentiate the two groups were age, marital status, and educational attainment. White veterans evidenced older ages, lower educational levels, and a "more married" status than white nonveterans. Black veterans and black nonveterans had comparable entry-level payrates. Black veterans were found to have significantly higher educational ability, socioeconomic background level, and were older than black nonveterans. Black entry-level payrates were comparable to white nonveteran payrates in this group.

6. 1967 - Nonsouth

In this region's labor force characteristics, nonveterans evidenced increased labor force participation in

1967. White nonveteran unemployment was down about one percentage point, but still continued to lead the overall group unemployment rate for white nonveterans. The black nonveteran labor force participation rate was up four percentage points from the previous year and well over twice the white nonveteran jobless rate. Veteran labor force participation rates remained high in this region. Veteran unemployment rates were lower than nonveteran unemployment rates but had increased from the previous year.

In the analysis of new workers, white veterans evidenced significantly higher entry-level payrates than white nonveterans. White veterans were also differentiated from white nonveterans in age, marital status, and SMSA residency. White nonveterans were found to be younger, more likely to be single, and had lower proportions of residence in SMSAs. Black veterans and black nonveterans were found to have comparable entry-level payrates. Black veterans evidenced significantly older ages and higher levels of socioeconomic background than black nonveterans.

7. 1967 - South

This region was found to have the following characteristics. Labor force participation rates were up a percentage point for white nonveterans and down four percentage points for black nonveterans. White nonveterans had unemployment rates a percent below the white nonveterans in the overall group. Black nonveteran unemployment was twice the rate of

white nonveteran unemployment in this region, but below the rate of black nonveteran unemployment found in the overall and Nonsouth groups. Veterans had high labor force participation rates and low unemployment rates in contrast to nonveterans of this region.

In job entry analysis, black veterans evidenced significantly higher entry-level payrates than black nonveterans. Black nonveterans were found to have significant differences in age and marital status. White veterans and white nonveterans had differences in age and educational levels with the veterans older and less educated than the nonveterans. White veterans were found to have slightly higher entry-level payrates than white nonveterans.

8. 1967 - 20-24 Year-Old Age Group

Black nonveteran unemployment rates increased by four percentage points from the previous year in this group. Other labor force conditions remained stable in this group with high labor force participation rates found for blacks and whites. Black veterans still evidenced greater unemployment than white veterans while staying below the black nonveterans in jobless rates.

White veterans and white nonveterans received comparable entry-level payrates, with white nonveterans evidencing significantly higher educational attainment than white veterans. Black veteran and black nonveteran payrates were also found to be comparable at job entry with only the

marital status variable significantly differentiating nonveterans from veterans.

9. 1968 - Overall

White nonveteran labor force participation held steady this year while unemployment was down to five percent. Black nonveteran labor force participation increased slightly while unemployment fell two percent to about 11 percent. Veteran labor force participation rates were about ten percentage points higher than nonveteran rates. Veterans showed almost full employment in this group.

White veterans were found to get significantly higher entry-level payrates than white nonveterans. White veterans were found to have significant differences from white nonveterans in age, marital status, use of occupational training, entry-level industry, and educational attainment. Veterans were found to be older, less educated, and used occupational training more than nonveterans. Black veterans had comparable entry-level payrates to black nonveterans. Black veterans were significantly different from black nonveterans in age, SMSA residence, and entry-level occupation with veterans older and residing in greater proportions in central-city SMSAs than black nonveterans.

10. 1968 - Nonsouth

White nonveteran labor force participation increased slightly this year with unemployment decreasing but still

above the overall group average. Black nonveteran labor force participation fell more than two percentage points below 85 percent with unemployment rising to 16 percent -- almost five percentage points above the overall group unemployment rate for black nonveterans and almost three times the white nonveteran unemployment rate in this region. Veterans were found to have high labor force participation and low unemployment in this region.

White nonveterans and white veterans were significantly different in age, marital status, entry-level industry, and payrates with veterans older, "more married," and receiving higher entry-level payrates than nonveterans. Black nonveterans were found to have higher entry-level payrates than black veterans but the difference did not approach statistical significance. Black veterans were found to be older than black nonveterans at job entry.

11. 1968 - South

White nonveteran labor force participation was comparable to the rate of the previous year and unemployment decreased, remaining under the overall group unemployment rate for white nonveterans. Black nonveteran labor force participation was up two percentage points from the previous year while unemployment decreased to under ten percent. Veteran labor force participation declined slightly from the previous year's rate with veteran unemployment rates still below nonveteran jobless rates in this region.

White veterans were found to have a number of significant differences from white nonveterans. On average, white veterans were almost five years older, used occupational training more, had different marital statuses, had lower Rotter scores, and higher entry-level payrates than white nonveterans. Black veterans and black nonveterans were similarly differentiated in age, marital status, use of occupational training, and SMSA resicence. Black veterans were older, less likely to be single, resided closer to the center-city SMSAs and used occupational training more than black nonveterans. Black veterans had only slightly higher entry-level payrates than black nonveterans. Additionally, black nonveterans and black veterans had significant differences in educational attainment and entry-level occupations and industries with the black nonveteran having the higher educational level.

12. 1968 - 20-24 Year-Old Age Group

Nonveteran rates in both labor force participation and unemployment were similar this year. Labor force participation rates for nonveterans fell about three percentage points, while white nonveteran unemployment was steady at three percent and black nonveteran unemployment fell below four percent. Veteran labor force participation rates also fell slightly this year from the rates of the previous year. Veteran unemployment was negligible in this age group.

White veterans had only slightly higher entry-level payrates than white nonveterans. White nonveterans and white veterans were found to have significant differences in age, use of occupational training and educational attainment. White nonveterans were found to be younger, had higher educational levels, and used occupational training less than white veterans. Black nonveterans and black veterans evidenced significant differences in age, use of occupational training, and entry-level occupations. Black nonveterans were younger and used occupational training less than black veterans. Black veterans had slightly higher entry-level payrates than black nonveterans.

13. 1969 - Overall

Labor force participation rates for white nonveterans increased in excess of four percentage points from the previous year while unemployment rose less than a percentage point. Black nonveterans evidenced increased labor force participation with unemployment steady at 11.3 percent. White veterans had lower labor force participation rates than the previous year and unemployment increased to three percent. Black veteran labor force participation fell below 80 percent with a two percent unemployment rate.

In analysis of job entry-level characteristics for this group, white veterans were found to have significantly higher payrates than white nonveterans. White veterans and white nonveterans had significant differences in age and

marital status. White veterans were older and less likely to be single than white nonveterans. Black veterans evidenced higher entry-level payrates than black nonveterans, but the difference was not statistically significant. Black veterans and black nonveterans were significantly differentiated on the variables age, marital status, SMSA residence, and economic background. Black veterans were older, resided closer to the SMSA center-city, had higher levels of economic background, and were "more married" than black nonveterans.

14. 1969 - Nonsouth

White nonveteran labor force participation continued to increase in this region, while unemployment stayed ahead of the overall group percentages by about one-half a percentage point at six percent. Black nonveteran unemployment decreased to around 13 percent. White veteran labor force participation decreased to 94 percent, still ten percentage points above the white nonveteran labor force participation rate. Unemployment for white veterans evidenced a decreasing labor force participation rate with unemployment up to three percent.

In job entry-level analysis, white veterans and white nonveterans were found to have significant differences in age, marital status, and educational attainment. White veterans were older and less educated than white nonveterans. White veterans and white nonveterans had comparable entry-level

payrates. Black veterans were significantly older, came from families with better economic backgrounds, and were more likely to be married than black nonveterans. Black nonveterans were found to have significantly better educational ability than black veterans. Entry-level payrates, between black veterans and black nonveterans, were comparable.

15. 1969 - South

White nonveteran labor force participation was up six percentage points and unemployment remained steady. Black nonveteran labor force participation rose to 82 percent with only a percentage point increase in unemployment to 10.4 percent. White veteran labor force participation continued to decline, but remained ahead of white nonveteran labor force participation. White veteran unemployment was down to two percent. Black veteran labor force participation also continued to decline and fell below black nonveteran participation for the first time. Black veteran unemployment remained very low in this region.

White nonveterans and white veterans were found to have significant differences in age, marital status, and entry-level payrates. White nonveterans were younger and less likely to be married, and had significantly lower job entry payrates than white veterans. Black veterans and black nonveterans were differentiated in age, use of occupational training, and payrates at job entry-level. Black

veterans were older and used occupational training more, and had significantly higher entry-level payrates than black nonveterans.

16. 1969 - 20-24 Year-Old Age Group

White nonveteran labor force participation declined slightly in the 20-24 age group in 1969. Unemployment among white nonveterans increased to four percent. Black nonveterans were found to have a decline in labor force participation of five percentage points and an increase of three percentage points in unemployment rate to above seven percent. White veterans were only slightly higher than white nonveterans in labor force participation with an 88 percent participation rate. White veteran unemployment was slightly above three percent. The black veteran labor force participation rate of 66 percent was the lowest rate found for any group among all the years of analysis. All black veterans of this age group in the labor force were employed this year.

In job entry-level analysis, no significant differences were found between white veterans and white nonveterans. There were no black veterans qualifying for entry-level analysis in this age group this year.

17. 1970 - Overall

White nonveteran labor force participation was up to 86 percent with unemployment also up just above six percent. White veteran labor force participation was down to 92 percent with a 6.2 percent unemployment rate, exceeding

white nonveteran unemployment for the first time. Black nonveteran unemployment remained steady at 12 percent, although the labor force participation rate had increased four percentage points to 89 percent. Black veteran labor force participation was up about ten percentage points to 89 percent while unemployment increased sharply to 12.5 percent.

In job entry analysis, numerous significant differences were found between white nonveterans and white veterans. White veterans were older, used occupational training more, and had lower Rotter scores than the white nonveterans. White nonveterans had better educational achievement, ability, and socioeconomic backgrounds than white veterans. White nonveterans and white veterans had similar job entry-level payrates. Black veterans and black nonveterans were significantly different in age and marital status with the black nonveteran younger and less likely to be married than the black veteran. Black veterans had a slightly higher entry-level payrate than black nonveterans, but the difference did not approach statistical significance.

18. 1970 - Nonsouth

White nonveteran labor force participation in this region at 86.3 percent was above the overall group rate for white nonveterans. White nonveteran unemployment was steady at 6.4 percent. White veteran labor force participation fell to 93 percent with a 6.3 percent jobless rate. Black nonveteran labor force participation was up to 89.3 percent.

Black nonveteran unemployment stood at 18.6 percent, almost three times the unemployment rate of white nonveterans in the region and a full six percentage points above the overall group rate for black nonveterans. Black veteran labor force participation was above 90 percent and unemployment was 16.4 percent.

In analysis of the characteristics of new workers, white nonveterans had slightly higher entry-level payrates than white veterans. Between white veterans and white nonveterans the following significant differences were found: veterans were older, had lower Rotter scores, came from lower socioeconomic backgrounds, and had lower levels of educational attainment and ability than the white nonveterans. Black veterans had slightly higher entry-level payrates than black nonveterans. The only significant difference between the black veteran and black nonveteran was noted in age, marital status, and economic background. Black veterans were found to be older, less likely to be single, and from better economic backgrounds than black nonveterans.

19. 1970 - South

White nonveteran labor force participation and unemployment increased to 85.6 percent and 5.2 percent respectively. The white veteran labor force participation rate fell to 88.2 percent with a six percent unemployment rate. Black nonveteran labor force participation was just over 88 percent while unemployment declined to 8.5 percent. Black

veteran labor force participation and unemployment closely matched the black nonveteran rates in this region.

At job entry-level, white veterans and white nonveterans were significantly differentiated in the age variable with the veterans older than the nonveterans. All other variables were found to be statistically similar. Black veterans and black nonveterans had significant differences in age and marital status with veterans older and more likely to be married than nonveterans. Entry-level payrates between white veterans and white nonveterans were statistically comparable. The black veteran and black nonveteran also had similar payrates.

20. 1970 - 20-24 Year-Old Age Group

White nonveteran labor force participation continued to increase in this age group and was 87 percent with an unemployment rate of 6.6 percent, just slightly above the white nonveteran unemployment rate found in the overall group. The white veteran labor force participation rate was 85.7 percent, accompanied by a rapidly rising 9.1 percent unemployment rate. Black nonveteran labor force participation was above 90 percent with a 11.8 percent jobless rate. Black labor force participation rose sharply to 87 percent. Black veteran unemployment was 14.9 percent in this age group this year. This contrasted to previous findings for black veterans in this age group of virtually zero unemployment.

In the analysis of new workers, the only significant difference found between white veterans and white nonveterans was in educational attainment. White nonveterans had higher educational levels than white veterans, but both groups received comparable entry-level payrates. Only a single black veteran qualified for job entry-level analysis this year, precluding any detailed analysis in this age group for blacks.

21. 1971 - Overall

White nonveteran labor force participation was up four percentage points to around 90 percent while unemployment declined to 5.9 percent. White veterans increased their labor force participation to 92.6 percent but had an increase in unemployment rate to 8.1 percent. Black veteran labor force participation was above 90 percent for the first time since 1968, although unemployment remained high at 12.2 percent. Black nonveteran labor force participation was 90.5 percent with unemployment decreasing two percentage points from 1970 to 10.4 percent.

In analysis, the following significant differences were found. White veterans were significantly older, had different marital statuses, lower educational attainment and lower IQ scores, and entered different industries; but had higher payrates than white nonveterans. Black veterans and black nonveterans were found to be significantly different in only age and educational attainment with veterans

older and less educated than nonveterans. Black nonveterans and black veterans had comparable entry-level payrate.

22. 1971 - Nonsouth

The labor force participation rate for white nonveterans was found to have increased four percentage points from 1970 to 90 percent. White nonveteran unemployment fell to almost six percent. White veteran labor force participation was 92.8 percent with unemployment increasing to 8.4 percent. Black nonveteran labor force participation fell to 88.2 percent. Black nonveteran unemployment decreased over five percentage points from the previous year to 13.4 percent, a rate still higher than the black nonveteran average of 10.4 percent in the overall group this year. Black veterans had an increased rate of labor force participation with a 13.2 percent jobless rate.

In analysis of job entry-level characteristics of new workers, significant differences were found between white nonveterans and white veterans in many variables. White nonveterans were found to be: younger, less likely to be married, of higher educational attainment and ability level, of better socioeconomic background, entering different occupations and industries, and receiving lower entry-level payrates than white veterans. Black veterans and black nonveterans had significant differences in entry-level occupations and industries, educational attainment, and age, with

the veterans older and less educated than the nonveterans. Black veterans had higher (but not statistically significant) entry-level payrates than black nonveterans.

23. 1971 - South

White nonveteran labor force participation was up to 91.1 percent and the unemployment rate declined to five percent. White veteran labor force participation was 92.2 percent while unemployment increased to 7.4 percent. Black nonveteran labor force participation rose to 91.8 percent. Black nonveteran unemployment was constant at 8.8 percent. Black veteran labor force participation stayed slightly below black nonveteran labor force participation, but black veteran unemployment led all groups in this region at 11.4 percent.

At job entry-level, the only variable significantly differentiating white veterans and white nonveterans was payrate. White veterans had significantly higher payrates than white nonveterans. Black veterans and black nonveterans were differentiated by the significantly higher educational abilities of the black veteran. Black veterans had slightly higher job entry-level payrates than black nonveterans.

24. 1971 - 20-24 Year-Old Age Group

White nonveterans and white veterans increased their labor force participation rates to 89.1 percent and 88.5 percent respectively. White veteran unemployment increased sharply to 12.5 percent, in contrast to the 7.5 percent white nonveteran unemployment rate. The black nonveteran labor

force participation rate steadied at 90 percent, with unemployment also holding steady at 12 percent. Black veteran labor force participation increased to 90.8 percent as unemployment declined from the previous year to 13.8 percent, still the highest jobless rate for any group within this age category.

In analysis of job entry characteristics, white veterans and white nonveterans were found to have significant differences in educational attainment and socioeconomic backgrounds. White nonveterans and white veterans were found to have comparable entry-level payrates, although the white nonveterans had significantly higher levels of educational attainment and came from better socioeconomic backgrounds than white veterans. The only significant difference noted between black nonveterans and black veterans was in marital status. Black nonveterans and black veterans had comparable entry-level payrates.

25. 1973 - Overall

White nonveteran labor force participation was 90.7 percent with unemployment at 2.7 percent. White veterans had a labor force participation rate of 91.5 percent and a 3.3 percent rate of unemployment. Black nonveteran labor force participation rose to 91.3 percent with a 6.4 percent jobless rate. Black veteran labor force participation fell to 89.1 percent, while black veteran unemployment continued to lead all groups at 8.2 percent.

In analysis, significant differences were found between white nonveterans and white veterans in age, educational attainment, educational ability, socioeconomic background, entry-level occupations, and entry-level payrates. White veterans had higher entry-level payrates than white nonveterans. White nonveterans were younger but had higher levels of educational attainment and ability and better socioeconomic backgrounds than white veterans. Black veterans and black nonveterans had significant differences in payrates, economic background, occupation, and industry. Black veterans had higher entry-level payrates than black nonveterans, with the nonveterans having the better economic backgrounds.

26. 1973 - Nonsouth

White nonveteran labor force participation was steady at 90.7 percent and unemployment returned to lower levels at 3.4 percent. The white nonveteran labor force participation rate decreased to 91.3 percent with unemployment found at a 4.4 percent rate. Black nonveteran labor force participation was 90.1 percent but unemployment remained high at 12.5 percent. Black veteran labor force participation decreased to 84.4 percent with a 13.8 percent unemployment rate.

Significant differences between white nonveterans and white veterans were found in age, educational attainment, educational ability, socioeconomic background, entry-level occupations, and entry-level industries. White veterans

had higher ages and lower educational levels and socio-economic background levels than white nonveterans. White veterans and white nonveterans had comparable job entry payrates. Black veterans and black nonveterans also had comparable entry-level payrates. Black veterans and black nonveterans had significant differences in age and entry-level occupations with veterans older than nonveterans.

27. 1973 - South

In this region, the white nonveteran labor force participation rate of 90.7 percent matched the Nonsouthern region labor force participation rate for white nonveterans for the only time in analysis. Unemployment for the white nonveterans averaged 1.2 percent. White veterans had a 92 percent labor force participation rate with a one percent jobless rate. Black nonveterans and veterans remained close in labor force participation with rates of 91.9 percent and 91.6 percent respectively. Black nonveteran unemployment was 3.6 percent with black veteran unemployment 5.3 percent.

In job entry analysis, white veterans had significantly higher job entry-level payrates than white nonveterans. Black veterans also had significantly higher job entry-level payrates than black nonveterans. Black veterans and black nonveterans were also significantly differentiated in age and economic background, with the black nonveterans older and from better economic backgrounds than the black veterans.

28. 1973 - 21-24 Year-Old Age Group*

*(This group was limited to young men 21 to 24 years of age to accomodate the 1973 NLS data.)

White nonveteran labor force participation decreased to 85.4 percent while unemployment was 4.1 percent. White veteran labor force participation was 87.4 percent and unemployment was down to 5.9 percent. Black nonveterans had a labor force participation rate of 88.6 percent witn an unemployment rate of 8.5 percent. Black veterans had an unemployment rate of 10.5 percent with a decreasing labor force participation rate of 85.7 percent.

In job entry-level analysis of new workers, white nonveterans and white veterans were found to have significant differences in entry-level payrates, occupations, industries, educational attainment, educational ability, socioeconomic background. White nonveterans had higher educational ability, educational attainment, and better socioeconomic backgrounds than white veterans, but the white veterans had the higher entry-level payrates. Black veterans and black nonveterans were differentiated in educational attainment and ability and entry-level occupation. Black veterans had slightly higher job entry payrates than black veterans, while the black nonveterans had higher levels of educational ability and attainment than the black veterans.

C. SUMMARY TRENDS

A number of trends were found to emerge from the above analyses. Veterans who obtained jobs evidenced significantly higher entry-level payrates than nonveterans. Additionally, when the payrate differences between the groups were not significant, veterans were generally found to have the higher job entry payrates. Veterans were often older than nonveterans, but, as this factor became insignificant, veterans continued to receiver higher job entry payrates. Veterans were found to have statistically different marital statuses than nonveterans, with the veterans evidencing a lower "score", indicating a "less likely to be single" status. This factor may have provided additional incentive to veterans to find higher paying jobs. Another interesting finding, to be further examined in contingency table analysis in the next chapter, was the numerous differences in entry-level occupations and industries noted between veterans and nonveterans. Use of occupational training may also help veterans, but the instances where veterans were found to have significantly higher use of occupational training were few. Nonveterans evidenced higher levels of educational attainment and educational ability, as well as significantly better socioeconomic and economic backgrounds than veterans. White nonveterans of the Nonsouthern region were found to indicate these high levels more often than the other nonveteran groups.

Other trends emerged in analysis of labor force participation and unemployment conditions in the later years (1970-1973) of the NLS. First, the NLS cohort grew older and exhibited a gradual transition into the workforce. Second, the conditions of high labor force participation rates, low unemployment rates, and plentiful jobs at good payrates from 1966 through early-1969 did not provide any indication of the coming difficulties to be experienced by veterans in the labor market. Going beyond the NLS data, these trends were, in part, noted in the Manpower Report of the President (1970). The Report stated that the increased numbers of military personnel being released from active duty into the labor force would further exacerbate the problem of increased supply in the labor force during a period of decreased labor demand. This item leads into the final trend noted in cross-sectional analyses. That is, when faced by ever-tightening conditions in attaining jobs and keeping jobs, veterans continued to stay in the labor force while slowly increasing their investments in post-service human capital. This trend was perhaps most importnat for the pre-1973 NLS veterans who were found to be among the most severely affected groups in the late-1969 through 1971 recession. Although not all the effects of the recession on the veteran are apparent in cross-sectional analyses of the NLS, many have been adequately documented by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (Gover and McEaddy, 1974; Stinson, 1979). During this period many

veterans were "bumped" by more senior employees into either lesser jobs or sometimes into the ranks of the unemployed. In either case, veterans accepted new jobs at lower payrates. In the job entry-level analyses of the NLS this was clearly evidenced in entry-level payrates for veterans. Another response from veterans, noted in the Bureau of Labor Statistics reports, was increased participation in educational benefits under the G.I. Bill. The reports stated that this increase was aided by the increases in payments to full-time students effected in 1971 and 1972. The majority of students, however, continued to be full-time workers. G.I. Bill educational usage increased among the younger, less endowed veterans on a full-time basis, while the older veterans continued to show a pattern of full-time worker, part-time student. This pattern will be investigated in the next chapter.

In conclusion, based on the results of cross-sectional analyses, tentative support for hypotheses one and two was indicated. Veterans were generally found to be hired at higher payrates than better educated nonveterans. This finding supported the second hypothesis that veteran status, by itself, may have given employees a screen in the hiring process, and that veteran status served as a "credential" for higher entry-level payrates. Partial support for hypothesis three was also found in cross-sectional analyses: veterans could be distinguished from nonveterans by

significantly different marital statuses. However, when controlling for age the differences between veterans and nonveterans in marital status were not found to be significant. In fact, when reviewing the 20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP, significant differences between veteran and nonveteran groups in marital status were found only twice.

VII. LONGITUDINAL ANALYSES OF JOB ENTRY-LEVEL CHARACTERISTICS 1966-1973

A. DETAILED ANALYSES

To further test hypotheses, a detailed analyses of veteran and nonveteran entry-level occupations and industries was conducted. Contingency table (crosstabulation) analysis was used to investigate the association of veterans and non-veterans on one-digit occupation and industry groups listed in chapter five. A chi-square test of statistical significance was used to investigate if systematic differences occurred between veterans and nonveterans in occupations or industries. The results of this analysis is reported in this chapter. The analyses helped test all hypotheses, but were most important to hypotheses two, three, and five. The analysis of hypothesis two requried a test to determine if veterans were "credentialed" job seekers. Hypothesis three proposed that veteran jobs were clustered in sectors of the labor market in terms of occupation and industry structure and payrates. Job entry-level payrates have been examined in cross-sectional analysis. Occupation and industry structure for new worker will be examined in detailed analysis and longitudinal analysis. Hypothesis five proposed that veteran status could be associated with upward mobility. A partial test of this hypothesis was provided in the analyses of entry-level occupations and industries.

B. LONGITUDINAL ANALYSES

All hypotheses of this thesis were tested in longitudinal analyses. The longitudinal analyses reported in this chapter was constructed from the cross-sectional findings previously discussed. That is, five variables from discriminant analysis and four labor force areas were selected, and their yearly results graphically plotted over the NLS years. This method of longitudinal analyses was used to test all hypotheses. Hypothesis one was further tested. In longitudinal analyses, all labor force areas of consideration and the "performance" variable, payrate, could be examined over time. This test was thought to be more complete in assessing the proposal of hypothesis one -- that military service provides benefits of increased productivity, maturity, and experience that pay-off for veterans at civilian entry job entry. Hypothesis two proposed that military service provides employers a screen of certification that identifies veterans as "credentialed" job seekers. Again, the tests associated with this hypothesis can be performed using longitudinal analyses. The labor force areas and the five variables selected from discriminant analysis plotted longitudinally provide for further opportunities in testing hypothesis two. The third hypothesis called for an investigation into whether the workforce is partitioned for veterans, with veteran jobs clustered in separate sectors of market power, profits, and wages. This

hypothesis was thoroughly tested with longitudinal analyses, as the results over time seemed to be more indicative of overall job entry characteristics than the results obtained in cross-sectional analyses. Hypothesis four put forth the proposal that veterans exhibit different relationships than nonveterans in the area of marital status and school participation. Marital status was analyzed in discriminant analysis and the cross-sectional results showed that veterans generally had statistically different marital statuses than nonveterans, but the findings also indicate that the veterans older ages may have contributed to their "more married" status. The second part of hypothesis four regarding school participation is tested in this chapter. Hypothesis five held that in the transition from school to work, the armed forces provide upward mobility to veterans after they leave the service and enter the civilian labor force. All parts of the longitudinal analyses are relevant in testing this hypothesis.

Tables six and seven of Appendices A through G provide percentage breakdowns of entry occupation and industry for the new workers of each major category (OVERALL, NONSOUTH, SOUTH, and 20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP). Appendix H contains 36 figures which provide a review of the year-to-year performance for veterans and nonveterans by race in the areas of labor force participation rate, unemployment rate, school participation rate (full-time), school participation rate (part-time), age, school grade completed, socioeconomic background, intelligence

quotient, and payrate. The figures, numbered H-1 through H-36, were based on the data contained in tables one through five of Appendices A through G.

This chapter provides an overview of the previously described analytical results. The overview will review the data from three general perspectives. Perspective one will review labor force conditions and the impact of economic conditions during the NLS years. The areas to be reviewed are labor force participation rate, unemployment rate, school participation rate (full-time), and school participation rate (part-time). The data used for this review come from table one of Appendices A through G, and is plotted in figures H-1 through H-16 of Appendix H. The second perspective of this section concerns the occupation and industry of job entry for the new workers of each NLS year. This perspective further explains the preliminary results found in discriminant analyses of these variables, as reported in the preceding chapter. Tables six and seven of Appendices A through G are used to support the findings in this area. The third area of review analyzes the results of the five most important variables from discriminant analyses. The variables plotted are age, school grade completed, socioeconomic background, intelligence quotient, and payrate. Appendix H, figures H-1 through H-36, provides the data for review and is based on tables two through five of Appendices A through G.

Each area will be examined in the four major categories (noted above). Although individual category analysis is important in this section, the comparative differences between areas will also be reviewed (i.e., OVERALL versus 20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP, NONSOUTH versus SOUTH, OVERALL versus NONSOUTH/SOUTH, etc.). The differences shown between the sub-groups of black veterans and black nonveterans and white veterans and white nonveterans is another important aspect of this chapter.

In the discriminant analyses results reported in the previous chapter, eleven variables were analyzed, but only five are reviewed in this chapter. The remaining variables were considered important, but were not graphically illustrated for the following reasons. Civilian occupational training did not appear often enough as a variable denoting significant differences between veterans and nonveterans to be considered in graphical analyses. Also, whenever it did appear as a significant variable in discriminant analyses, use of civilian occupational training was always higher for the veteran groups. Census division of residence was not graphically plotted, as the regional breakdowns of the Southern and Nonsouthern groups were considered sufficient levels of analysis in this area. Standard metropolitan statistical area residency status did not often show significant differences between veterans and nonveterans.

When this variable did appear, the results agreed with the previous findings that the closer to central-city SMSA the higher the earnings premiums (Kalachek, 1969; Marshall, 1975; Parnes and Kohen, 1975). Economic background often appeared as significant in the analyses of new workers. A separate bivariate regression analyses of economic background and socioeconomic background was conducted for each race. The results indicated a relationship between the variables that was statistically significant at greater than the .001 level for both whites and blacks. Therefore, only socioeconomic background was used for graphical analyses. Marital status was another variable that often significantly differentiated veterans and nonveterans. Veterans were almost always "more married" then nonveterans, with the Nonsouthern regions showing different marital statuses than those in the Southern regions, and the younger groups reflecting lower marital tendencies. Since marital status was found to be related generally to the aging process, the age variable was considered an acceptable proxy in general graphical analyses. The ROTTER variable was used primarily to test if veteran status was associated with attitude. Since the results showed veterans generally had lower scores than nonveterans, further analysis of this variable was not necessary. Occupation and industry were the remaining two variables used in discriminant analyses. Their detailed examination will be conducted later in this chapter, and did not require graphical presentation.

Eleven variables will be reviewed in this section. The variables were grouped into three general areas. These general areas presented three descending levels of aggregation: general conditions using labor force participation rates; unemployment rates; and school participation rates; specific occupational/industrial conditions using entry-level percentages in occupation and industry; and then job-specific conditions using age, school grade completed, socioeconomic background, intelligence quotient, and payrate. When required, references to the figures or tables are given to support the general findings.

C. GENERAL LABOR FORCE CONDITIONS

1. Labor Force Participation Rate

Figures H-1, H-5, H-9, and H-13 were used to support the following findings.

-- Veterans of both races maintained the highest rates of labor force participation, averaging above 90 percent im most years. As the economic conditions weakened in 1969 through 1971, veteran labor force participation dropped, and was slow in recovering to 1966-1967 levels. Younger veterans in the 20-24 year-old age group were the most sensitive to economic conditions, as shown in the fluctuating labor force participation rates from 1968 through 1973 (Figure H-13).

-- Nonveterans showed either stable or increasing labor force participation rates over the years regardless

of economic conditions. Black nonveteran labor force participation rates were generally higher than white nonveteran rates in all major categories. This fact will be commented on later in the section on unemployment rates.

-- The regional analyses did not provide any noticeable differences. Figures H-5 and H-9 show similar labor force participation profiles in each region. Nonsouthern labor force participation was slightly higher for all groups from 1966 through 1969, but the rates in both regions are similar thereafter.

2. Unemployment Rate

Figures H-2, H-6, H-10, and H-14 provided the background for this section.

-- Black nonveterans stand out as the group with the biggest problem in this area. Black nonveteran unemployment was often twice and sometimes three times the rate of white nonveteran unemployment. This fact, coupled with the previously discussed high rates of labor force participation for black nonveterans, presented a disturbing picture. However, the data did not support "discouraged worker" theories for young adult blacks.

-- White nonveteran unemployment seemed fairly impervious to economic conditions, and consistently averaged about six percent.

-- The 20-24 year-old age group was the most sensitive to economic conditions (Figure H-14), as shown by the marked

fluctuations in unemployment rates. Black nonveterans seemed to be the bellwether indicator of impending economic instability in this category.

-- Veteran unemployment rates seem to be most affected by economic conditions. The increase in veteran jobless rates, from the low rates of 1966-1969 to the high rates of the later NLS years, indicated employer decisions to exercise the "last hired-first fired" prerogative during periods of falling business activity. Black veterans stood out as the group most severely affected by the declining economic conditions. This presented an ancilliary problem to manpower policymakers in the area of black unemployment, as was noted in the Bureau of Labor Statistics reports from 1971 through 1973.

-- Although similar responses to economic conditions were noted, Nonsouthern unemployment rates were generally higher for all groups. In periods of improving conditions, Nonsouthern unemployment rates levelled off more slowly and then remained higher than Southern rates. Blacks had particularly high unemployment rates in the Nonsouthern regions, especially after 1969 (Figures H-6 and H-10). Southern black nonveterans generally had lower jobless rates than Nonsouthern black nonveterans with the ratio of black/white nonveteran unemployment usually lower in the South.

3. School Participation Rate (Full-Time)

Figures H-3, H-7, H-11, and H-15 were used in the analyses below.

-- White nonveteran school participation rates generally decreased as the number of 16-17 year-olds in the sample declined. An interesting anomaly occurred in 1968 for white nonveterans. In this year, school participation rates either slowed their decline or increased (Figures H-3, H-11, and H-15). Two points seem related to this abnormality. One, full-time student deferments provided a means to avoid conscription in this peak war year. Two, the minimum wage increased from $1.25/hour in 1966, to $1.40/hour in 1967, and then to $1.60/hour in 1968. Black nonveteran school participation seemed to increase as minimum wage rates went up. This point was more evident in the regional and age group analyses below.

-- Both black and white veterans did not show substantial full-time student participation rates until later NLS years. Except for white veterans in the Southern region, veteran groups showed minimal school participation rates from 1966 through 1970. Two factors were seen to signal the marked increase in full-time school participation for veterans in 1971 and 1973, especially for Nonsouthern and 20-24 year-old white nonveterans. First, the economic conditions showed slow recovery. Second, G.I. Bill monetary benefits for education increased by 33 percent in 1971 and 20 percent in 1972.

-- The 20-24 year-old age group (Figure H-15) shows the markedly dissimilar school participation rates for white

and black nonveterans. That white nonveterans seemed to dominate secondary and post-secondary educational attendance in such a manner was unsettling discovery. Veteran groups were helped by increased in G.I. Bill benefits, though black veteran school participation rates lagged behind white veteran rates in both response and magnitude. Further analysis at later stages of life will provide insight as to whether veteran participation in educational benefits under the G.I. Bill provided an equalizing mechanism within society for the disparity noted above. White nonveterans in this age group were found to be concentrated at the upper levels of secondary education with some at post-secondary levels. All other groups in this age group were concentrated within the lower levels of secondary education, with some at the high school level.

-- Regional graphs (Figures H-7 and H-11) show very dissimilar rates of school participation. Southerners generally exhibited higher rates of school participation in the early NLS years (1966-1968), thereby indicating that more of their 16-17 year-olds stayed in school rather than participate in the labor force. White nonveteran rates of school participation in both regions stayed fairly close from 1969 to 1973. Nonsouthern black nonveterans show substantially lower student participation rates, especially in early NLS years. This factor was thought to influence and compound the high incidence of unemployment noted earlier for this group.

4. School Participation Rate (Part-Time)

Figures H-4, H-8, H-12, and H-16 show the graphical results for part-time school participation rates. Percentages in this area were based on full-time employment status (working over 35 hours/week) and school participation. The rates were thus understandably low for all groups (5.1 percent and below). Analyses of a part-time worker, part-time studnet status was not conducted. The examination of the two extremes of school participation (full-time student/non-worker versus part-time student/full-time worker) was considered a viable alternative.

-- White veterans showed the highest rates of part-time school participation in all major categories. As economic conditions deteriorated, white veteran rates went up, but they seemed to lead rather than lag economic fluctuations.

-- Black veterans did not show any participation in this area from 1966 to 1969. Black veterans showed small increases in part-time school participation in later NLS years as the economy fluctuated and G.I. Bill monetary benefits increased.

-- White nonveteran part-time school participation rates varied through the years. In the Nonsouthern and 20-24 year-old age group (Figures H-8 and H-16) the jump in part-time participation rates for white nonveterans in 1969 seems a direct result of the 1968 anomaly noted in 1968 full-time school participation rates that was previously

discussed (Figures H-7 and H-15). Black nonveteran part-time school participation rates fluctuated in the early (1966-1969) years, reflecting the uneven school participation and labor force participation of younger members (age 16-18) in the NLS.

-- In regional analyses (Figures H-8 and H-12), part-time school participation rates were noticeably different. Nonsouthern white and black nonveteran rates were generally higher than Southern rates. The competitiveness of the Nonsouthern region's labor force may require an earlier entry into the labor force, especially for workers with below average abilities. This factor may require more flexible and responsive educational alternatives for these workers. White veteran part-time school participation rates in both regions fluctuate markedly, but were generally higher than all other groups over the years. Most white veteran students were attending college.

-- In the 20-24 year-old age group (Figure H-16), black nonveterans and black veterans show very low rates of part-time school participation. White nonveteran rates reflect, to a great extent, the previous student participation rates of draft eligible 19 year-olds. White veterans in this group were the leading part-time students/full-time workers.

D. JOB ENTRY OCCUPATIONS AND INDUSTRIES

1. Occupations of New Workers

Table six of Appendices A through G supported the findings below.

-- Discriminant analyses results showing significnat differences between veterans and nonveterans were generally supported. There were many more instances of statistically significant differences noted in occupational analyses in the abovementioned tables (based on a Chi-square test), than in discriminant analyses. Two factors explain this result. One, in discriminant analyses a mean and standard deviation of groups was compared. The mean for each group's occupation was computed by adding the different occupational codes reflected for the group and then dividing by the number of that group. This was clearly not the manner in which to analyze occupational entry for new workers, but it did provide insight into differences between the two groups -- as was its purpose. In fact, due in part to the smaller sample sizes in the discriminant analyses, the technique provided a sensitive determination of group differences, at least in areas of job entry occupation and industry. The second reason for the greater number of significant differences found in this section's analyses was attributed to the greater detail of the procedure used.

-- White nonveterans exhibited the most even occupational distributions in all categories over the NLS years. Black nonveterans, and to a greater extent black veterans, were concentrated in five of the twelve occupations: operatives and kindred; craftsmen, foremen, and

kindred; service workers, except private household; clerical and kindred; and laborers, except farm and mine.

-- None of the groups of new workers in any major category entered private household work in any NLS year. Manager occupations also showed minimal participation among all groups.

-- Veteran groups of both races showed generally low participation in agricultural occupations, reflecting the SMSA status of the majority of veterans.

-- As increased numbers of veterans obtained employment in later NLS years (tables F-6 and F-7), more statistically significant differences were noted between white veterans and white nonveterans in entry occupation. White veterans increased their participation in these years in the craftsmen, foremen, and kindred occupations, while maintaining their high percentages in the operative and kindred occupations.

-- In regional analyses there were a number of notable differences. Nonsouthern blacks showed higher participation in the service worker occupation than Southern blacks. The Southern blacks had higher percentages in the laborer occupations than their counterparts in the Nonsouthern regions. There seemed to be a greater number of jobs in the professional, technical, and kindred occupations available in the Nonsouthern regions, and the greatest share of these jobs went to white nonveterans. Participation in agricultural occupations was greater in the Southern

regions. Black veterans in the South generally fared better than black veterans in Nonsouthern regions during the economically uncertain years of 1969-1971, with greater dispersions and more even distributions seen among all occupations for the black veterans of the Southern regions.

-- Veterans showed marked competitive differences in entry occupations in the 20-24 year-old age group. Veterans obtained few jobs outside the craftsmen, foremen, and kindred; operative and kindred; clerical and kindred; and the laborer (mostly non-agriculture) occupations. Veterans did not obtain an equal share of jobs in the professional, technical, and kindred occupations, but were comparable with nonveterans in getting jobs in the managers, officials, and proprietors category. With deteriorating economic conditions and the entrance of better qualified nonveterans into the labor force in the later (1970-1973) NLS years, nonveterans had more even distributions. Nonveterans showed lower percentages in the laborer and service worker occupations in these years. Veterans adjusted to the conditions, and seemed to fill the unwanted jobs, especially in the laborer and service worker occupations.

2. Industries of New Workers

Table seven of Appendices A through G were used to support the findings below.

-- There were many more differences between veteran and nonveteran groups noticed in the area of industries than

was noted in the occupational analyses. The industrial differences between veterans and nonveterans were most prevalent in the early NLS years.

-- Veterans generally limited their entry-level participation to the manufacturing; wholesale and retail trade; transportation, communication, and public utilities; and construction industries. Nonveterans also showed high percentages of entry-level jobs in these industries, but when significant differences were noted in analyses the veterans showed the markedly higher rates of participation in these industries (Tables A-7, C-7, D-7, and F-7).

-- Black veterans showed the same general characteristics noted above for veterans, but seemed to enter the business and repair service industry and public administration jobs more than any other group (Tables B-7, D-7, and G-7). Black veterans showed minimal participation in agriculture, forestry, and fishery industries.

-- All groups in all categories showed very low percentages of entry-level participation in mining, personal services, and entertainment and recreational services industries. In the highly regarded professional and related service industry, nonveterans generally recieved the higher percentages of new jobs, but veterans showed improvement in this area in the later years.

-- In regional analyses, higher percentages of new workers obtained jobs in technical industries (professional

and related services; transportation, communication, and public utilities) in the Nonsouthern regions. The Southern regions had higher percentages of new workers getting jobs in the agriculture, forestry and fisheries and construction industries (Tables E-7, F-7, and G-7). In the Nonsouthern region blacks concentrated their entry-level participation in the manufacturing industry. Public administration jobs also seemed more prevalent, although not plentiful, in the Nonsouthern regions.

-- In the 20-24 year-old age group, veterans concentrated their participation in the manufacturing, construction, and the wholesale and retail trade industries. Nonveterans, especially white nonveterans, gathered the major share of the professional and related services jobs in this age group. Veterans generally obtained equal percentages of public administration jobs, with black veterans showing surprising interest in this area (Figures A-7 and G-7).

E. JOB SPECIFIC CHARACTERISTICS

1. Age

Figures H-17, H-22, H-27, and H-32 were used to support the following findings.

-- Nonveterans of both races showed comparable job entry-level ages in all NLS years. Even in the earlier NLS years (1966-1969) in which substantial numbers of younger men

(below age 21) were in the NLS, the average age of obtaining full-time work averaged well above age 21. This fact is evidenced in the later NLS years. For example, in 1971 when the youngest members of the NLS were 19, the average age for full-time employment was about 23. In 1973, when the youngest members of the NLS were 21, the average age for full-time workers was above 24 years-old (Figure H-17).

-- Veterans, especially black veterans, were substantially older than nonveterans until 1973.

-- In regional analyses, the differences for blacks seemed most notable. Black nonveterans of the Southern regions were generally older than black nonveterans of the Nonsouthern regions at job entry. In the Nonsouthern regions, veterans always maintained substantial differences in age at job entry, being older in all NLS panels, than nonveterans. In the Southern regions, veteran and nonveteran age comparability was shown in 1971 and 1973.

-- In the 20-24 year-old age group, veterans were older at entry level from 1966 to 1969. Ages of new workers were comparable in this category from 1970 to 1973 averaging about age 22. This evidence seemed to support the previous findings that full-time jobs were not generally found for nonveterans until well after age 21.

2. School Grade Completed

Figures H-18, H-23, H-28, and H-33 were used to support the findings noted below.

-- White nonveterans obtaining full-time work generally had greater than high school educations. They exhibited greater educational achievement in all categories and among all groups. In the early NLS years, white nonveterans had educational levels only slightly higher than the other group, but in 1970-1973 they increased their margin generally showing a one to two grade advantage in educational achievement (Figure H-18). All other groups averaged educational levels in the high school graduate range, with black veterans slightly below the 12th grade level and white veterans slightly ablve. Black nonveterans showed similar educational levels to the white veterans, and generally had higher levels than black veterans.

-- In the regional analyses (Figures H-23 and H-28), the differences in school grade completed are substantial. Nonsouthern white veterans generally achieved higher levels of educational attainment over all groups in either region. Blacks in the Nonsouthern regions, especially black veterans, showed noticeably lower educational levels than white nonveterans. White veterans in the Southern region seemed to show their greater participation in education under the G.I. Bill in the later NLS years, with a half-year edge in educational attainment over Nonsouthern white veterans. In general, white veterans in the Nonsouthern regions appeared more educated at induction into the armed forces than Southern white veterans. In contrast, the Southern black

veterans appeared more educated than Nonsouthern black veterans at service entry. This aspect was indicated in the NLS years 1966-1968 in which G.I. Bill educational benefits were being minimally used by both groups. Southern black nonveterans maintained fairly steady high school graduate status, while their counterparts in the Nonsouthern regions fluctuated above and below the 12th grade level. The high levels of educational attainment shown for black nonveterans of the Nonsouthern regions in 1971 and 1973 indicated general educational improvement for the new workers in this group.

-- In the 20-24 year-old group the white nonveteran average educational level is well above all other groups at about 13½ years of education. All other groups average slightly above the 12th grade level, with the veterans of the later NLS years showing slowly increasing educational levels. Black nonveterans show steadily increasing educational levels in the later NLS years. Black veterans showed the lowest educational levels in this category.

3. Socioeconomic Background

Figures H-19, H024, H-29, and H-34 were used to provide the following review.

-- Whites came from better socioeconomic backgrounds and their socioeconomic background averages paralleled their educational levels (Figures H-18 and H-19). Black veteran socioeconomic backgrounds fluctuated due to small sample sizes, but generally showed the same backgrounds as black

nonveterans. On average the blacks showed status scores of about 90, while whites averaged about 105.

-- In the regional analyses, white nonveterans of the Nonsouthern regions came from better socioeconomic backgrounds than all other groups in either region. White veterans of the Southern region came from better backgrounds than white nonveterans, while blacks were well below both groups. Black veterans in the Nonsouthern regions fluctuated more in socioeconomic backgrounds than black nonveterans in this region and the blacks of the South. In comparison, socioeconomic backgrounds for white nonveterans averaged about 110, Nonsouthern and Southern white veterans averaged 105, Nonsouthern black veterans and nonveterans averaged around 95, and Southern blacks averaged approximately 85.

-- In the 20-24 year-old age group, white nonveterans averaged socioeconomic backgrounds slightly below 110. White veterans were close to white nonveterans in 1968 through 1970, but fairly wide gaps appeared in other NLS years. White veterans averaged background scores of about 105. Black Nonveterans and black veterans, the latter group fluctuating due to small sample size, were fairly comparable in socioeconomic background averaging scores of slightly below 90.

4. Intelligence Quotient

Figures H-20, H-25, H-30, and H-35 provided the data for the following findings.

-- White nonveterans had higher average IQs than all other groups, but the differences were not very great until the later NLS years. White veterans stayed close to the white nonveterans at times in IQ score. White nonveterans average IQs were slightly above 100, while white veterans were slightly below the 100 score (Figure H-20). Black nonveterans averaged fairly constant scores at about 85. Black veterans fluctuated markedly in IQ, but seemed to show an average slightly below 90.

-- Nonsouthern white nonveterans had the highest IQs of all groups averaging slightly below 105. White veterans averaged scores of about 100 and were comparable to white nonveteran scores in the early NLS years (1966-1969) in the Nonsouthern regions. Blacks of the Nonsouthern region averaged scores slightly below 90. Southern black nonveterans showed the lowest IQ scores of any group in the region averaging in the low 80s. Southern black veterans showed average IQs slightly below 90. Southern white nonveterans averaged IQs around 100, while white veterans generally maintained comparable scores averaging around 95 in 1966-1970 and slightly above 100 thereafter.

-- In the 20-24 year-old age group, white nonveterans had higher IQ scores in every year but 1969, with scores averaging close to 105 for white nonveterans and about 100 for white veterans. Black veterans averaged scores in the

high 80s, while black nonveterans generally had the lowest IQs whth averages in the mid to low 80s.

-- This area in general corresponded to socioeconomic background patterns. This finding was verified in separate bivariate regression analyses of socioeconomic background versus intelligence quotient score for each race. In this analyses, a correlation of .4 (for whites) and .32 (for blacks) was shown, with the results statistically significant at above the .0001 level (F-Test).

5. Payrates

Figures H-21, H-26, H-31, and H-36 provided the data for the following findings.

-- White veterans averaged higher entry-level payrates, often by wide margins over all other groups in all categories (Figure H-21).

-- Black veterans showed comparable payrates to white nonveterans and black nonveterans in the early NLS years (1966-1969), but suffered slight setbacks in payrates as economic conditions worsened.

-- White nonveterans displayed the most consistently improving payrates over the years, and seemed unaffected by fluctuations in the economy.

-- Black nonveterans received the lowest payrates overall, averaging about $0.50/hour lower than white non-veteran payrates over the years.

-- In regional analyses, payrates in the Nonsouthern regions averaged $0.50/hour higher than payrates of the Southern region. Veterans of both races did better in the Southern region, with white veterans generally obtaining higher payrates than all other groups. Southern black veterans had general payrate comparability with white nonveterans, except for the years 1970 and 1971 in which both veteran groups showed markedly lower entry-level payrates. First, in 1970 both veteran groups in the Southern regions showed an $1.00/hour decrease in entry-level payrates, but both groups maintained comparability with their nonveteran counterparts. Then, in 1971, recovery was fairly slow for black veterans in the South, while white veteran payrates regained their pre-1970 level and margin over white nonveterans (Figure H-31). Black nonveterans averaged the lowest payrates in the Southern region and increased at slower rates through the years than all other groups. In the Nonsouthern regions, black nonveterans showed closer payrate comparability to all groups than was evidenced by the black nonveterans of the South. Black veterans of the Nonsouthern regions payrates fluctuated above and below the other groups over the years. This aspect was probably due to small sample sizes for this group.

-- In the 20-24 year-old age group, white nonveterans and white veterans showed general payrate comparability over the years, with the white veterans showing a substantially higher payrate in 1973. Black veterans had payrates similar

to white nonveterans only in two years, but maintained comparable payrates with black nonveterans in all but one year. Black nonveterans averaged the lowest payrates in this age category, but they generally were less than $0.50/ hour lower than white non-veteran payrates. All groups responded to economic fluctuations of the 1969-1971 years with the veterans most responsive to receding economic conditions.

F. SUMMARY

Differences between veterans and nonveterans in the early (1966-1968) NLS years were often very wide, with veterans doing well in these years. Their older ages helped them considerably for three reasons. One, many of the younger (age 16-18) men of these years elected to finish their high school educations and stayed in school. Two, as other studies (Welch, 1977, 1978), have shown the younger the worker, the more deletorious the effect of increases in the minimum wage, and the minimum wage went up in 1966, 1967, and 1968. Three, economic conditions, older ages, and acceptable (average) abilities gave the veteran groups good jobs in most occupations and industries. The economic conditions deteriorated in 1969 and 1970 and a turnabout occurred in the veteran job picture. First, as the NLS in these later years contained smaller proportions of younger adults and nonveterans increased their labor force participation rates, competition for jobs increased. Second, as the economy faltered employers

became more selective in hiring and unemployment became noticeable for veterans. Third, as better educated and older nonveterans appeared in the labor force, veterans were forced to accept either unemployment or new jobs at lower entry-level payrates.

Regional differences between veterans and nonveterans were less noticeable than the racial separations shown in each region. Nonsouthern regions generally showed the "classic institutional" (Jencks et.al., 1972) barriers between blacks and whites. The Southern region evidenced more obvious differences between blacks and whites, such as the high percentages of blacks in the service worker and laborer occupations. Veterans generally fare better in the Southern region as they blended in better with the average characteristics of the general population. The Nonsouthern regions appeared much more competitive than the Southern region showing higher labor force participation rates, higher unemployment rates, lower school participation rates, and fewer occupations and industries available for new workers.

The 20-24 year-old age category was overall the most competitive and sensitive area for new workers. Veterans in this category were hard pressed to find jobs anywhere outside the manufacturing, construction, or transportation industry, especially during the recessionary period of 1969-1970. Nonetheless, veterans generally performed well in this age group finding jobs and earning higher payrates

in the face of competition from nonveterans, especially white nonveterans who had higher educational attainment, IQ scores, and socioeconomic background "scores."

In conclusion, detained and longitudinal analyses were used to test the five hypotheses of this thesis. The results of this chapter will be combined with the results of chapter six, and all hypotheses will be reviewed in the next chapter.

VIII. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. CONCLUSION

Job entry-level characteristics of new full-time workers were analyzed in this thesis. Age, educational attainment, educational ability, socioeconomic background, payrate, use of civilian occupational training, census division of residence, Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area of residence, economic background, marital status, occupation, industry, and index of internal versus external control (Rotter Scale) were the variables used in examination of job entry characteristics. Military service was defined as a general training variable. Five hypotheses were constructed to investigate the value of military service at job entry-level. Young men of the National Longitudinal Survey (NLS) age 14-24 in 1966 were separated by race and veteran status into four groups: white nonveterans, white veterans, black nonveterans, and black veterans. The four groups were analyzed in four general areas: all men over 16 years of age, all men over 16 who were residents of states outside the South, all men over 16 who were Southern state residents, and all men 20 to 24 years-old in a NLS year. Using the eleven variables listed above and implications from human capital theory, "dual" labor market theory, and the screening hypothesis, the transition of young men to work was reviewed over the NLS years 1966 to 1973.

Discriminant analysis of the eleven variables was used to denote statistically significant differences between the veteran and nonveteran groups at full-time job entry in each NLS year. Only nonveterans and veterans of the same race were compared. Based on the results of discriminant analyses, five important variables were selected for graphical representation to determine if the cross-sectional results from discriminant analyses had any systemantic relationship longitudinally. Contingency table analysis was used to examine percentage breakdowns of veterans and nonveterans in entry-level occupations and industries. Four areas of general labor force conditions were used to analyze general economic and labor market conditions faced by these workers at job entry. This was an important area of analysis. For example, since the Great Depression, Gross National Product (GNP), measured and reported in current-year dollars, has increased. Referring to the economy as "expanding," even during slowdowns in the rate of expansion (i.e., the recessions of 1957-1958, 1969-1970, and 1974-1975) is correct, prima facie. However, when reviewing the effects of these slowdowns on the labor market, a slowly expanding economy offers little comfort to the unemployed or the "unprotected" worker. During the 1969-1970 recession, the Manpower Report of the President (1970) stated that despite continued expansion of the economy, "the insidious warping pressures of inflation posed a serious threat to the

stability and equity of further progress...for overcoming the country's major employment and economic problems." The Report expected unemployment to rise in 1970. "Reduction in the strength of the Armed Forces and in defense production (are) already underway...increasing the labor supply at the same time the employment growth has slowed down." The Report concluded that, "Recovery will obviously depend on the resiliency of the economy in shifting to civilian production and on the effectiveness of manpower programs in training and placing veterans and in helping youth to find jobs. An important ingredient in the success of such programs will be in the resumption of sustainable economic and job growth."

Five hypotheses involving the determinants of job entry characteristics were tested. Evidence for each of the five hypothesis is summarized below.

Hypothesis one: Military service provides benefits of increased productivity, maturity, and experience that pay-off for veterans at civilian job entry.

General support for this hypothesis was found in cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses. Entry-level payrates were used to test this hypothesis. Veterans showed significant and systematic payrate advantages over nonveterans. Entry-level payrate advantages were less obvious during the recession and recovery years 1970-1973. Veterans were older and showed different marital status than nonveterans.

Nonveterans, especially white nonveterans, had higher educational levels, educational abilities (IQ), and came from better socioeconomic backgrounds. The tests of this hypothesis were conducted on a microcosm of the labor market of young adults defined in accordance with Bureau of Labor Statistics parameters. In this analytical context, veterans outperformed nonveterans supporting the hypothesis.

Hypothesis two: Military service provides employers a screen or certification that identifies veterans as "credentialed" job seekers.

This hypothesis was tested in two ways. First, the hypothesis proposed that veterans passing through the "screen" of hiring will be rewarded as "credentialed employees." This part of the hypothesis was tested and confirmed using entry-level payrates as above. Second, the hypothesis proposed that veterans would have better chances to screen successfully for jobs. This part of the hypothesis was tested in analysis of unemployment rates. No strong support was found that more veterans obtained jobs than nonveterans, especially when employers practiced restraint in hiring practices. An argument that veterans were "credentialed" job seekers was not supported in times of economic uncertainty. It was during recessionary periods tha the "credentialed employee" effect was severely tested for veterans of short job tenure who faced the "last hired-first fired" dilemma. This facet of veteran activity in the labor market was not

examined in this thesis, but is an area of interest to future research. In summary, only partial support for hypothesis two was found and the findings supportive of the hypothesis were evidenced during favorable economic periods.

Hypothesis three: The workforce is partitioned for veterans, with veteran jobs clustered in terms of occupational and industrial structure and payrates.

No support of this hypothesis was shown in analyses. All comparisons of veterans to nonveterans were limited to members of the same race. From this perspective, there were only subtle differences noted in the age group and regional analyses. Although veterans were often found to enter different occupational and industrial jobs, the jobs were not clustered in separate sectors of the labor market. Veterans generally had higher percentages of entry-level jobs in the most popular occupations and industries for new workers. Going outside the test of this hypothesis, evidence suggested that the workforce was partitioned, not by veteran and nonveteran status, but by race. Black nonveterans showed the greatest clustering of jobs by occupation and industry, but this finding requires further analysis and is an area for further study.

Hypothesis four: Veterans exhibit different relationships than nonveterans in the areas of marital status and school participation.

Evidence from cross-sectional analysis supported this hypothesis for marital status. However, when controlling for age, little difference between veterans and nonveterans was found in marital status. The fact to consider from this analyses was that in the aggregate young adult job market, the veteran had a different ("more likely to be married") marital status than the nonveteran. In school participation, no clear findings emerged until G.I. Bill monetary benefits increased in 1971 and 1972. Support for the hypothesis was not substantial until the later years of the NLS. Strongest support for this hypothesis was found in the white veteran groups. Black veterans lagged white veterans in rate of increase in school participation and had lower participation rates as either part-time or full-time students. The greatest support for this hypothesis occurred in the later NLS years, but differences between veteran groups in educational participation were evidenced. Therefore, only tentative and partial support could be found for this hypothesis, and this is an area for further examination.

Hypothesis five: In transition from school to work, the armed forces provided upward mobility to veterans after they leave the service and enter the civilian labor force.

Support for this hypothesis was evidenced in several analyses on a number of variables. Veterans were found to be well represented in the labor force maintaining high rates of labor force participation, even as jobless rates increased

in the labor force and within the veteran cohort. Veterans were found to perform well at job entry with similar percentages to nonveterans in entry-level occupations and industries and higher entry-level payrates than the better educated nonveterans. Veterans evidenced low rates of use of civilian occupational training, although findings indicated low use of civilian occupation training for all groups. This evidence supports the hypothesis since veterans were found to have equal opportunities with nonveterans to use civilian occupational training. However, further study is required to examine the propensity to use, propensity to obtain, and the opportunity to obtain civilian occupational training. Another area of support for the hypothesis was found in veteran use of G.I. Bill educational benefits. Post-service veteran educational usage was the only area examined, although other benefits to veterans may be of interest to future researchers, such as veteran unemployment benefits, veteran job-placement programs, or veteran low-interest home mortages. As evidenced from the preceding findings, veteran status, while not conspicuously rewarding the veteran with superior credentials, was found to impart subtle but real advantages to young men after leaving the military. The aging process while in-service must be considered advantageous to the veteran, especially in light of the additional benefits of socializing and working with other people on "real-life" jobs in a large organization.

The additional knowledge gained from working in the military, learning how to be productive, and experiencing not only physical but social maturing were found to assist veterans at job entry-level by appearing in the form of human capital endowments. Black veterans were comparable to black non-veterans in most areas other than age and marital status. Yet, black veterans were found to have entry-level payrates and percentages in occupations and industries that approached those of whites. Longitudinally, black veterans were found to have steady progress in entry-level payrates until the recession and recovery years of 1969-1971. Black veteran unemployment rates were also found to be susceptible to economic downtowns, as evidenced by the rapid increase and then slow decline in black veteran unemployment. In summary, hypothesis five was supported in various findings that could be related to the term "upward mobility." The armed forces was not found to be recycling individuals from military service to "secondary jobs," and this finding was supported in analysis of a number of variables that reviewed veteran performance at civilian job entry.

B. SUMMARY

The NLS years 1966-1969 and 1970-1973 evidenced marked contrast in analysis. The analysis of this thesis could have been divided into two distinct sections. One-half of the analysis would contain the years 1966-1969 when the

economy experienced real growth in GNP, low inflation, and plentiful jobs. The other half of the analysis would show the years 1970-1973, when the economy was stagnant and inflation rates and unemployment rates increased. The effect of the economic slowdown on the veteran groups was substantial, and support for hypotheses one, two, and five diminished or disappeared.

Based on the findings from analysis, military service as a general training investment is worthy of consideration for young people leaving school or in transition to work. However, if gains made in the labor market in getting jobs or receiving high entry-level payrates were somehow reinforced or insulated against economic recession, the benefits of military service in transition from school to work for young adults would be more obvious.

C. RECOMMENDATIONS

Levitan and Alderman (1977), in a review of the All-Volunteer Force, succintly present the areas that should best "insulate" veterans against future economic "shocks." The authors noted some desireable trends within the armed forces. They reported that, as of 1976, about one-fourth of all military personnel in the service participated in one or more voluntary education programs. Counting personnel drawing in-service G.I. Bill education benefits, the total was around one-third. Levitan and Alderman observed that,

"Virtually all career personnel who enter service without finishing high school acquire high school diplomas (while in service)...the credentialing (costs) the armed services about $800 in direct outlay per diploma, a very modest cost considering the value many employers ascribe to the credentials and their potential help to recipients. The Defense Department credentialing activity does not stop with a high school diploma. It also extends to administering servicewide college credit examinations." These in-service educational benefits should be more widely publicized. The three recommendations below are offered:

-- Emphasize in-service educational opportunity over the Veterans Educational Assistance Program benefits to potential recruits.

-- Institute of Department of Defense/Department of Education collaborative effort to complete the systematic, nation-wide franchising of in-service college programs, especially in the areas of transfer credits and post-service registration procedures.

-- Continue the in-service promotion and availability of educational opportunities while incorporating more technical-vocational training courses for off-duty personnel. Collaborative efforts between local commands and business groups, such as the National Alliance of Businessmen, seem to hold promise in this area.

Accreditation of military personnel for both formal and on-the-job training is the subject of the final recommendation. The subject of accreditation has been considered before, and it is costly and requires adjustment to both military and civilian training, apprenticeship, and job programs. However, it seems an area worthy of effort whose time has come. The recommendation is:

-- Develop a systematic and recognized program, with union and business assistance, for apprenticeship credit under the collaborative effort of the Service Secretaries and the Labor Department Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training.

APPENDIX A - EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE -- 1966

The following tables give the results found in general labor force statistics and discriminant analysis of the new workers of 1966 in the National Longitudinal Survey of young men.

TABLE A-1

1966 EMPLOYMENT STATISTICS (PERCENTAGES)

	NONVETERANS(N=2400)	VETERANS(N=323)
	WHITES	
LFPR	76.9%	96.3%
UNEM	7.4%	1.0%
SPR(FT/PT)	21.5%/2.9%	3.1%/4.0%
	NON-SOUTH WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=1674)	VETERANS(N=237)
LFPR	77.4%	96.6%
UNEM	7.9%	1.0%
SPR(FT/PT)	21.1%/3.3%	3.4%/5.1%
	SOUTH WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=726)	VETERANS(N=86)
LFPR	75.9%	95.3%
UNEM	6.4%	1.2%
SPR(FT/PT)	22.2%/1.9%	2.3%/1.2%
	20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=952)	VETERANS(N=309)
LFPR	86.8%	96.4%
UNEM	2.3%	1.0%
SPR(FT/PT)	12.1%/3.7%	2.9%/4.2%
	BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=938)	VETERANS(N=38)
LFPR	81.9%	100%
UNEM	12.8%	5.3%
SPR(FT/PT)	15.1%/2.9%	0.0%/0.0%
	NON-SOUTH BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=277)	VETERANS(N=22)
LFPR	83.0%	100%
UNEM	13.0%	4.5%
SPR(FT/PT)	13.0%/4.3%	0.0%/0.0%
	SOUTH BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=661)	VETERANS(N=16)
LFPR	81.4%	100%
UNEM	12.6%	6.3%
SPR(FT/PT)	16.0%/2.3%	0.0%/0.0%
	20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=331)	VETERANS(N=37)
LFPR	94.0%	100%
UNEM	4.5%	5.4%
SPR(FT/PT)	3.9%/1.2%	0.0%/0.0%

NOTES--(LFPR) = LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE
(UNEM) = UNEMPLOYMENT RATE
(SPR-FT) = SCHOOL PARTICIPATION RATE FULL-TIME
(SPR-PT) = SCHOOL PARTICIPATION RATE PART-TIME

TABLE A-2

1966 NEW WORKERS

WHITES (N=255)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=191)	VETERANS(N=64)
AGE66	20.2(2.4)	22.3(1.4)***
GRCP6	12.3(2.0)**	11.8(1.2)
SOCIOEC6	106.0(18.6)**	100.9(15.0)
IQ	99.6(14.4)	96.7(13.3)
PAYRATE6	2.13(0.78)	2.39(0.69)***
CIVTRA6	0.12(0.32)	0.09(0.29)
CDRES6	4.5(2.6)	4.9(2.6)
SMSA6	2.3(0.7)	2.2(0.8)
FDUNC	34.9(22.1)***	27.8(20.8)
MARSTA6	3.9(2.5)	3.4(2.5)*
OCC16	5.3(2.7)	5.0(2.3)
IND6	5.5(2.6)	5.6(2.7)
ROTTER	21.8(5.3)	20.6(4.3)*

BLACKS (N=51)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=45)	VETERANS(N=6)
AGE66	20.0(2.3)	23.2(0.8)***
GRCP6	11.7(2.0)	12.2(0.4)
SOCIOEC6	89.6(17.2)	89.5(25.4)
IQ	80.3(13.1)	96.5(16.7)***
PAYRATE6	1.72(0.71)	2.30(0.63)**
CIVTRA6	0.04(0.21)	0.17(0.41)
CDRES6	5.4(2.0)	4.5(2.1)
SMSA6	1.6(0.8)	1.5(0.5)
FDUNC	14.7(9.2)	18.2(10.1)
MARSTA6	4.8(2.2)	3.8(2.3)
OCC16	5.9(2.8) **	8.3(2.9)
IND6	6.4(2.8) *	4.7(1.0)
ROTTER	23.9(4.7)	20.3(4.7)*

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE A-3

1966 NEW WORKERS

NON-SOUTH WHITES (N=183)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=140)	VETERANS(N=43)
AGE66	20.3(2.4)	22.2(1.5)***
GRCP6	12.6(1.9)***	11.8(1.1)
SOCIOEC6	109.3(16.7)***	101.2(14.7)
IQ	101.1(14.5)	98.7(11.7)
PAYRATE6	2.24(0.77)	2.50(0.72)**
CIVTRA6	0.11(0.32)	0.09(0.29)
CDRES6	N/A	N/A
SMSA6	2.2(0.7)	2.2(0.8)
FDUNC	36.6(22.8)***	27.0(20.9)
MARSTA6	4.1(2.4)	3.8(2.5)
OCC16	5.0(2.6)	4.9(2.3)
IND6	5.8(2.7)	5.6(2.7)
ROTTER	21.5(5.2)	20.9(4.4)

NON-SOUTH BLACKS (N=18)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=15)	VETERANS(N=3)
AGE66	20.7(2.3)	23.3(0.6)*
GRCP6	12.4(2.1)	12.3(0.6)
SOCIOEC6	98.1(12.8)	95.7(18.8)
IQ	82.1(15.3)	103.3(20.0)**
PAYRATE6	2.19(0.78)	2.69(0.48)
CIVTRA6	0.0(0.0)	0.33(0.6)***
CDRES6	N/A	N/A
SMSA6	1.1(0.4)**	1.7(0.6)
FDUNC	14.0(6.6)	17.0(1.7)
MARSTA6	4.3(2.4)	3.7(2.5)
OCC16	4.8(2.5) *	7.3(3.2)
IND6	5.9(2.9)	4.0(0.0)
ROTTER	26.7(5.7)	21.0(3.6)*

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE A-4

1966 NEW WORKERS

SOUTH WHITES (N=72)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION) NONVETERANS(N=51)	VETERANS(N=21)
AGE66	20.1(2.5)	22.5(1.2)***
GRCP6	11.6(2.0)	11.7(1.4)
SOCIOEC6	96.7(20.4)	100.2(15.9)
IQ	95.3(13.3)	92.6(15.6)
PAYRATE6	1.82(0.72)	2.17(0.57)**
CIVTRA6	0.12(0.33)	0.10(0.30)
CDRES6	N/A	N/A
SMSA6	2.4(0.8)	2.3(0.8)
FDUNC	30.3(19.5)	29.3(21.1)
MARSTA6	3.5(2.5)	2.5(2.2)
OCC16	6.0(2.7)	5.0(2.4)
IND6	4.8(1.9)	5.6(2.6)
ROTTER	22.7(5.7)	19.9(4.2)**

SOUTH BLACKS (N=33)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION) NONVETERANS(N=30)	VETERANS(N=3)
AGE66	19.1(2.2)	23.0(1.0)***
GRCP6	11.4(1.8)	12.0(0.0)
SOCIOEC6	85.3(17.7)	83.3(33.9)
IQ	79.4(12.1)	89.7(12.7)
PAYRATE6	1.49(0.54)	1.90(0.55)*=.219
CIVTRA6	0.07(0.25)	0.0(0.0)
CDRES6	N/A	N/A
SMSA6	1.8(0.9)	1.3(0.6)
FDUNC	15.1(10.4)	19.3(15.7)
MARSTA6	5.0(2.0)	4.0(2.6)
OCC16	6.5(2.8) *	9.3(2.9)
IND6	6.6(2.8)	5.3(1.2)
ROTTER	22.6(3.6)	19.7(6.4)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE A-5

1966 NEW WORKERS

20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-WHITES (N=166)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=105)	VETERANS(N=61)
AGE66	22.1(1.4)	22.5(1.3)*
GRCP6	12.9(2.3)***	11.8(1.1)
SOCIOEC6	108.1(18.1)***	100.7(15.2)
IQ	99.3(14.7)	96.1(12.9)
PAYRATE6	2.33(0.81)	2.42(0.69)
CIVTRA6	0.11(0.32)	0.10(0.30)
CDRES6	4.4(2.4)	4.9(2.6)
SMSA6	2.2(0.8)	2.2(0.8)
FDUNC	39.7(22.5)***	27.7(21.0)
MARSTA6	3.3(2.5)	3.3(2.5)
OCC16	4.7(2.7)	4.9(2.3)
IND6	5.9(3.0)	5.6(2.7)
ROTTER	21.8(5.1)	20.4(4.4)*

20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-BLACKS (N=26)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=20)	VETERANS(N=6)
AGE66	22.0(1.4)	23.2(0.8)**
GRCP6	12.5(2.5)	12.2(0.4)
SOCIOEC6	90.0(17.6)	89.5(25.4)
IQ	79.3(12.2)	96.5(16.7)***
PAYRATE6	2.00(0.80)	2.30(0.63)
CIVTRA6	0.10(0.31)	0.17(0.41)
CDRES6	4.9(2.2)	4.5(2.1)
SMSA6	1.4(0.7)	1.5(0.5)
FDUNC	14.0(9.1)	18.2(10.1)
MARSTA6	4.2(2.4)	3.8(2.3)
OCC16	5.2(3.1) **	8.3(2.9)
IND6	7.0(3.0) *	4.7(1.0)
ROTTER	23.6(5.7)	20.3(4.7)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE A-6

1966--OCCUPATIONS OF NEW FULL-TIME WORKERS (PERCENTAGES)

	ALL WORKERS				NON-SOUTH				SOUTH				20-24 AGE			
	WNV-(N=478)				WNV-(N=335)				WNV-(N=143)				WNV-(N=253)			
	WV-(N=128)				WV-(N=93)				WV-(N=35)				WV-(N=120)			
	BNV-(N=226)				BNV-(N=70)				BNV-(N=156)				BNV-(N=103)			
	BV-(N=16)				BV-(N= 7)				BV-(N= 9)				BV-(N=15)			
	W N V	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V
PROFESSIONAL, TECHNICAL, AND KINDRED---	12	9	3	0	14	10	6	0	5	6	2	0	19	10	7	0
MANAGERS, OFFICIALS, AND PROPRIETORS--	3	3	1	0	3	3	1	0	4	3	0	0	5	3	1	0
CLERICAL AND KINDRED---	9	11	8	13	10	11	16	14	6	11	4	11	8	12	8	13
SALES WORKERS---	4	4	1	0	5	3	1	0	2	6	1	0	4	4	0	0
CRAFTSMEN, FOREMEN, AND KINDRED---	17	24	8	19	15	23	7	29	22	29	8	11	19	23	9	13
OPERATIVES AND KINDRED---	35	37	37	31	34	39	41	43	36	31	35	22	30	36	36	33
PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD WORK-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SERVICE WORKERS, EXCEPT PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD------	6	5	14	19	5	4	10	0	7	6	16	33	4	5	10	20
FARMERS AND FARM MANAGERS-	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
FARM LABORERS AND FOREMEN---	3	0	8	0	3	0	0	0	4	0	11	0	3	0	6	0
LABORERS, EXCEPT FARM AND MINE------	12	8	22	19	11	8	17	14	14	9	24	22	8	8	24	20

NOTES--

(1) WNV=WHITE NONVETERAN, WV=WHITE VETERAN

(2) BNV=BLACK NONVETERAN, BV=BLACK VETERAN

(3) EACH VET VS. NONVET SAMPLE TESTED FOR SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BY CHI-SQUARE TEST: % = .1 LEVEL, & = .05 LEVEL, $ = .01 LEVEL

TABLE A-7

1966--INDUSTRIES OF NEW FULL-TIME WORKERS (PERCENTAGES)

	ALL WORKERS WNV-(N=484) WV-(N=129) BNV-(N=228) BV-(N=17)				NON-SOUTH WNV-(N=338) WV-(N=94) BNV-(N=72) BV-(N= 8)				SOUTH WNV-(N=146) WV-(N=35) BNV-(N=156) BV-(N= 9)				20-24 AGE WNV-(N=256) WV-(N=121) BNV-(N=104) BV-(N=16)			
	W N V%	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V$	W N V%	W V	B N V	B V
AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY, AND FISHERIES-	5	2	9	0	5	2	1	0	6	0	13	0	5	2	9	0
MINING----	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	9	0	0	1	3	0	0
CONSTRUCT-	9	8	7	6	8	10	3	0	11	3	8	11	11	7	5	6
MANUFACT--	39	45	36	41	38	45	46	50	40	46	32	33	36	45	40	44
TRANSPORTATION, COMMUNICATION, AND PUBLIC UTILITIES-	7	9	5	6	8	9	4	13	6	9	6	0	8	8	6	6
WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE-----	20	18	23	24	18	17	19	13	24	20	25	33	13	17	22	25
FINANCE, INSURANCE, AND REAL ESTATE----	2	2	1	6	2	2	4	0	2	0	0	11	2	2	1	6
BUSINESS AND REPAIR SERVICES--	5	4	3	6	5	4	4	13	6	3	3	0	6	4	2	0
PERSONAL SERVICES--	1	2	4	0	2	2	4	0	1	3	3	0	2	3	5	0
ENTERTAINMENT AND RECREATION SERVICES--	1	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
PROFESSIONAL, AND RELATED SERVICES--	8	4	6	0	10	4	6	0	3	3	6	0	13	4	5	0
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION--	3	5	4	12	3	5	7	13	1	6	2	11	4	6	3	13

NOTES--

(1) WNV=WHITE NONVETERAN, WV=WHITE VETERAN

(2) BNV=BLACK NONVETERAN, BV=BLACK VETERAN

(3) EACH VET VS. NONVET SAMPLE TESTED FOR SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BY CHI-SQUARE TEST: % = .1 LEVEL, & = .05 LEVEL, $ = .01 LEVEL

APPENDIX B - EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE -- 1967

The following tables give the results found in general labor force statistics and discriminant analysis of the new workers of 1967 in the National Longitudinal Survey of young men.

TABLE B-1

1967 EMPLOYMENT STATISTICS (PERCENTAGES)

	NONVETERANS(N=2913)	VETERANS(N=316)
	WHITES	
LFPR	79.1%	96.5%
UNEM	6.5%	2.3%
SPR(FT/PT)	18.9%/2.5%	2.2%/2.2%
	NON-SOUTH WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=2028)	VETERANS(N=233)
LFPR	80.1%	97.4%
UNEM	6.8%	2.6%
SPR(FT/PT)	18.3%/2.7%	1.3%/2.1%
	SOUTH WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=860)	VETERANS(N=81)
LFPR	77.0%	93.8%
UNEM	5.7%	1.3%
SPR(FT/PT)	20.3%/2.1%	4.9%/2.5%
	20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=1180)	VETERANS(N=222)
LFPR	88.5%	95.9%
UNEM	2.6%	1.4%
SPR(FT/PT)	10.2%/2.3%	3.2%/2.3%
	BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=1105)	VETERANS(N=35)
LFPR	80.3%	100%
UNEM	13.8%	2.9%
SPR(FT/PT)	17.7%/1.6%	0.0%/0.0%
	NON-SOUTH BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=324)	VETERANS(N=20)
LFPR	87.0%	100%
UNEM	15.2%	5.0%
SPR(FT/PT)	11.1%/2.5%	0.0%/0.0%
	SOUTH BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=760)	VETERANS(N=15)
LFPR	77.2%	100%
UNEM	13.1%	0.0%
SPR(FT/PT)	20.7%/1.3%	0.0%/0.0%
	20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=350)	VETERANS(N=19)
LFPR	94.3%	100%
UNEM	8.2%	5.2%
SPR(FT/PT)	4.6%/1.0%	0.0%/0.0%

NOTES--(LFPR) = LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE
(UNEM) = UNEMPLOYMENT RATE
(SPR-FT) = SCHOOL PARTICIPATION RATE FULL-TIME
(SPR-PT) = SCHOOL PARTICIPATION RATE PART-TIME

TABLE B-2

1967 NEW WORKERS

WHITES (N=265)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=215)	VETERANS(N=50)
AGE67	20.3(2.6)	23.3(1.6)***
GRCP7	12.6(2.2)*	12.1(1.8)
SOCIOEC6	104.4(17.4)	101.9(17.2)
IQ	100.7(14.2)	98.4(13.6)
PAYRATE7	2.33(1.06)	2.54(0.66)*=.17
CIVTRA7	0.12(0.33)	0.10(0.30)
CDRES7	4.7(2.4)	4.7(2.3)
SMSA7	2.3(0.8)	2.2(0.8)
FDUNC	34.0(21.9)	34.5(22.4)
MARSTA7	3.6(2.5)	2.6(2.3)***
OCC17	4.9(2.9)	5.0(2.8)
IND7	5.8(2.9)	5.5(2.4)
ROTTER	21.9(5.6)	21.0(4.8)

BLACKS (N=66)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=60)	VETERANS(N=6)
AGE67	19.9(2.8)	24.3(1.0)***
GRCP7	11.6(1.6)	12.0(1.3)
SOCIOEC6	86.0(15.5)	97.0(14.9)*
IQ	83.6(13.4)	95.8(8.1)**
PAYRATE7	1.95(0.74)	2.27(0.62)
CIVTRA7	0.02(0.13)	0.0(0.0)
CDRES7	4.8(1.8)	4.5(1.5)
SMSA7	1.7(0.9)	1.5(0.8)
FDUNC	15.6(10.4)	14.3(9.7)
MARSTA7	4.6(2.2)	1.8(2.0)***
OCC17	6.6(2.9)	5.3(2.0)
IND7	5.7(2.8)	6.0(3.3)
ROTTER	22.6(4.9)	22.2(4.3)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE B-3

1967 NEW WORKERS

NON-SOUTH WHITES (N=178)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=146)	VETERANS(N=32)
AGE67	20.2(2.7)	23.1(1.6)***
GRCP7	12.7(2.1)	12.4(1.6)
SOCIOEC6	106.1(15.3)	103.8(14.3)
IQ	101.7(14.5)	99.7(13.8)
PAYRATE7	2.38(1.05)	2.71(0.68)*
CIVTRA7	0.10(0.30)	0.13(0.34)
CDRES7	N/A	N/A
SMSA7	2.2(0.8)	2.0(0.8)*
FDUNC	33.5(21.0)	32.1(21.5)
MARSTA7	3.9(2.5)	2.7(2.4)***
OCC17	5.1(3.0)	5.4(3.0)
IND7	5.7(2.8)	5.3(2.6)
ROTTER	22.2(5.7)	21.5(5.3)

NON-SOUTH BLACKS (N=24)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=21)	VETERANS(N=3)
AGE67	19.9(2.9)	24.3(1.2)***
GRCP7	11.6(1.9)	11.3(1.2)
SOCIOEC6	87.8(13.5)	107.3(12.5)**
IQ	88.3(11.7)	98.3(12.0)
PAYRATE7	2.63(0.72)	2.56(0.80)
CIVTRA7	0.05(0.22)	0.0(0.0)
CDRES7	N/A	N/A
SMSA7	1.3(0.6)	1.3(0.6)
FDUNC	14.2(6.0)	19.0(12.5)
MARSTA7	4.6(2.2)	2.7(2.9)
OCC17	6.2(2.7)	5.0(1.7)
IND7	6.3(3.2)	6.7(4.6)
ROTTER	22.0(5.1)	25.3(3.5)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE B-4

1967 NEW WORKERS

SOUTH WHITES (N=87)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=69)	VETERANS(N=18)
AGE67	20.6(2.5)	23.7(1.6)***
GRCP7	12.4(2.3)	11.6(2.0)
SOCIOEC6	100.7(20.9)	98.5(21.4)
IQ	98.4(13.5)	96.1(13.4)
PAYRATE7	2.21(1.08)	2.25(0.51)
CIVTRA7	0.10(0.30)	0.11(0.32)
CDRES7	N/A	N/A
SMSA7	2.4(0.8)	2.6(0.7)
FDUNC	35.2(23.9)	38.8(23.9)
MARSTA7	3.1(2.5)	2.3(2.2)
OCC17	4.6(2.6)	4.3(2.3)
IND7	6.0(3.0)	5.7(2.1)
ROTTER	21.4(5.5)	20.1(3.7)

SOUTH BLACKS (N=42)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=39)	VETERANS(N=3)
AGE67	19.9(2.7)	24.3(1.2)***
GRCP7	11.6(1.4)	12.7(1.2)
SOCIOEC6	85.1(16.8)	86.7(8.7)
IQ	81.2(13.7)	93.3(1.5)
PAYRATE7	1.58(0.43)	1.98(0.27)*
CIVTRA7	0.0(0.0)	0.0(0.0)
CDRES7	N/A	N/A
SMSA7	1.9(1.0)	1.7(1.2)
FDUNC	16.3(12.1)	9.7(3.8)
MARSTA7	4.5(2.3)	1.0(0.0)***
OCC17	6.8(3.0)	5.7(2.5)
IND7	5.4(2.6)	5.3(2.3)
ROTTER	23.1(4.9)	19.0(2.0)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE B-5

1967 NEW WORKERS

20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-WHITES (N=145)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)		
	NONVETERANS(N=111)		VETERANS(N=34)
AGE67	22.0(1.5)		22.5(1.3)***
GRCP7	13.4(2.3)***		11.9(1.7)
SOCIOEC6	108.3(18.5)		104.1(15.8)
IQ	101.3(14.6)		99.5(14.8)
PAYRATE7	2.67(1.10)		2.49(0.61)
CIVTRA7	0.12(0.32)		0.15(0.36)
CDRES7	4.8(2.4)		4.9(2.4)
SMSA7	2.2(0.8)		2.2(0.8)
FDUNC	38.7(23.3)		32.7(22.4)
MARSTA7	2.8(2.4)		2.6(2.3)
OCC17	4.2(2.9)	**	5.3(3.0)
IND7	6.4(3.1)		5.1(2.4)
ROTTER	21.1(5.0)		21.1(5.0)

20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-BLACKS (N=24)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=22)	VETERANS(N=2)
AGE67	22.0(1.6)	23.0(0.0)
GRCP7	12.1(1.7)	11.0(1.4)
SOCIOEC6	83.9(17.1)	101.0(17.0)
IQ	77.9(11.4)	89.0(4.2)
PAYRATE7	1.97(0.74)	2.62(1.09)
CIVTRA7	0.0(0.0)	0.0(0.0)
CDRES7	5.2(2.0)	5.0(2.8)
SMSA7	1.8(0.9)	1.0(0.0)
FDUNC	15.9(13.4)	19.5(17.7)
MARSTA7	3.9(2.4)	1.0(0.0)*
OCC17	6.5(3.4)	7.0(1.4)
IND7	6.0(3.2)	6.0(2.3)
ROTTER	24.0(5.4)	23.0(8.5)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE B-6

1967--OCCUPATIONS OF NEW FULL-TIME WORKERS (PERCENTAGES)

	ALL WORKERS WNV-(N=514) WV-(N=85) BNV-(N=244) BV-(N=12)				NON-SOUTH WNV-(N=347) WV-(N=62) BNV-(N=70) BV-(N= 6)				SOUTH WNV-(N=167) WV-(N=23) BNV-(N=174) BV-(N= 6)				20-24 AGE WNV-(N=239) WV-(N=66) BNV-(N=92) BV-(N= 7)			
	W N V	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V
PROFESSIONAL, TECHNICAL, AND KINDRED---	15	9	3	0	16	8	3	0	13	13	3	0	23	9	5	0
MANAGERS, OFFICIALS, AND PROPRIETORS--	5	9	1	0	5	10	1	0	7	9	1	0	8	6	2	0
CLERICAL AND KINDRED---	9	11	7	25	9	11	16	33	8	9	3	17	7	9	7	14
SALES WORKERS---	4	6	2	0	5	7	1	0	3	4	2	0	5	8	3	0
CRAFTSMEN, FOREMEN, AND KINDRED---	18	21	10	8	17	19	14	0	19	26	9	17	20	23	8	14
OPERATIVES AND KINDRED---	30	29	35	33	28	31	40	50	33	26	33	17	24	30	30	29
PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD WORK-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SERVICE WORKERS, EXCEPT PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD------	3	2	13	25	3	0	13	17	5	9	13	33	2	0	12	29
FARMERS AND FARM MANAGERS-	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FARM LABORERS AND FOREMEN---	3	2	5	0	3	2	0	0	3	4	6	0	3	3	4	0
LABORERS, EXCEPT FARM AND MINE------	12	9	24	8	14	13	11	0	8	0	29	17	8	12	28	14

NOTES--

(1) WNV=WHITE NONVETERAN, WV=WHITE VETERAN

(2) BNV=BLACK NONVETERAN, BV=BLACK VETERAN

(3) EACH VET VS. NONVET SAMPLE TESTED FOR SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BY CHI-SQUARE TEST: % = .1 LEVEL, & = .05 LEVEL, $ = .01 LEVEL

TABLE B-7

1967--INDUSTRIES OF NEW FULL-TIME WORKERS (PERCENTAGES)

	ALL WORKERS WNV-(N=508) WV-(N=83) BNV-(N=243) BV-(N=12)				NON-SOUTH WNV-(N=341) WV-(N=58) BNV-(N=71) BV-(N= 6)				SOUTH WNV-(N=167) WV-(N=25) BNV-(N=172) BV-(N= 6)				20-24 AGE WNV-(N=237) WV-(N=64) BNV-(N=93) BV-(N= 7)			
	W N V	W V	B N V&	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V$	B V	W N V%	W V	B N V	B V
AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY, AND FISHERIES-	6	4	6	0	6	3	0	0	6	4	8	0	4	5	8	0
MINING----	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
CONSTRUCT-	11	7	11	8	9	7	4	0	16	8	13	17	12	9	14	14
MANUFACT--	31	42	38	58	33	45	48	67	25	36	34	50	28	44	31	57
TRANSPORTATION, COMMUNICATION, AND PUBLIC UTILITIES-	6	11	3	8	6	7	3	17	7	20	4	0	7	10	4	14
WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE-----	25	16	19	0	25	14	20	0	24	20	19	0	22	11	19	0
FINANCE, INSURANCE, AND REAL ESTATE----	3	2	3	0	4	3	3	0	2	0	2	0	3	3	2	0
BUSINESS AND REPAIR SERVICES--	3	4	5	8	2	3	6	0	5	4	5	17	3	2	5	14
PERSONAL SERVICES--	1	2	2	0	1	3	0	0	1	0	3	0	1	3	2	0
ENTERTAINMENT AND RECREATION SERVICES--	0	1	1	0	0	0	3	0	1	4	1	0	0	2	1	0
PROFESSIONAL, AND RELATED SERVICES--	10	7	10	0	11	9	9	0	8	4	10	0	14	6	12	0
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION--	3	4	2	17	3	5	6	17	4	0	0	17	6	5	1	0

NOTES--

(1) WNV=WHITE NONVETERAN, WV=WHITE VETERAN

(2) BNV=BLACK NONVETERAN, BV=BLACK VETERAN

(3) EACH VET VS. NONVET SAMPLE TESTED FOR SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BY CHI-SQUARE TEST: % = .1 LEVEL, & = .05 LEVEL, $ = .01 LEVEL

APPENDIX C - EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE -- 1968

The following tables give the results found in general labor force statistics and discriminant analysis of the new workers of 1968 in the National Longitudinal Survey of young men.

TABLE C-1

1968 EMPLOYMENT STATISTICS (PERCENTAGES)

	NONVETERANS(N=3106)	VETERANS(N=325)
	WHITES	
LFPR	79.0%	92.6%
UNEM	5.5%	1.0%
SPR(FT/PT)	18.2%/2.0%	3.1%/1.0%
	NON-SOUTH WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=2134)	VETERANS(N=235)
LFPR	80.3%	94.5%
UNEM	5.9%	0.5%
SPR(FT/PT)	17.2%/1.9%	2.1%/1.0%
	SOUTH WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=937)	VETERANS(N=84)
LFPR	76.8%	89.3%
UNEM	4.6%	2.7%
SPR(FT/PT)	20.2%/2.1%	3.6%/1.2%
	20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=1099)	VETERANS(N=151)
LFPR	85.2%	90.7%
UNEM	3.0%	0.7%
SPR(FT/PT)	12.1%/1.7%	5.3%/2.0%
	BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=1180)	VETERANS(N=37)
LFPR	80.8%	92.0%
UNEM	11.3%	0.0%
SPR(FT/PT)	15.4%/2.2%	0.0%/0.0%
	NON-SOUTH BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=361)	VETERANS(N=21)
LFPR	84.8%	95.2%
UNEM	16.0%	0.0%
SPR(FT/PT)	11.4%/3.3%	0.0%/0.0%
	SOUTH BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=783)	VETERANS(N=16)
LFPR	79.4%	87.5%
UNEM	9.5%	0.0%
SPR(FT/PT)	17.5%/1.8%	0.0%/0.0%
	20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=356)	VETERANS(N=12)
LFPR	91.9%	75.0%
UNEM	3.7%	0.0%
SPR(FT/PT)	4.5%/1.4%	0.0%/0.0%

NOTES--(LFPR) = LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE
(UNEM) = UNEMPLOYMENT RATE
(SPR-FT) = SCHOOL PARTICIPATION RATE FULL-TIME
(SPR-PT) = SCHOOL PARTICIPATION RATE PART-TIME

TABLE C-2

1968 NEW WORKERS

WHITES (N=358)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)		
	NONVETERANS(N=313)		VETERANS(N=45)
AGE68	20.1(2.8)		23.8(2.1)***
GRCP8	12.5(2.0)*		12.0(1.8)
SOCIOEC6	105.5(17.9)		104.2(16.4)
IQ	101.6(14.0)		99.0(11.8)
PAYRATE8	2.64(1.14)		3.16(1.18)***
CIVTRA8	0.18(0.38)		0.29(0.46)*
CDRES8	4.5(2.4)		4.4(2.3)
SMSA8	2.2(0.8)		2.2(0.8)
FDUNC	35.4(23.2)		34.0(21.3)
MARSTA8	4.1(2.4)		2.5(2.2)***
OCC18	5.5(3.2)		5.5(3.1)
IND8	5.7(2.8)	**	4.9(2.8)
ROTTER	22.0(5.1)		21.4(4.7)

BLACKS (N=85)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)		
	NONVETERANS(N=81)		VETERANS(N=4)
AGE68	19.8(2.3)		25.0(1.2)***
GRCP8	11.9(1.4)		11.3(1.0)
SOCIOEC6	87.4(17.8)		92.0(16.5)
IQ	85.5(14.6)		91.8(5.4)
PAYRATE8	2.12(0.71)		2.13(0.30)
CIVTRA8	0.12(0.33)		0.25(0.50)
CDRES8	5.3(1.9)		5.0(1.8)
SMSA8	1.8(0.9)		1.0(0.0)*
FDUNC	17.9(14.6)		17.3(12.4)
MARSTA8	4.4(2.3)		3.5(2.4)
OCC18	6.8(2.9)	**	3.5(2.1)
IND8	5.5(2.7)		4.5(1.9)
ROTTER	23.3(5.3)		23.0(5.2)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE C-3

1968 NEW WORKERS

NON-SOUTH WHITES (N=257)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)		
	NONVETERANS(N=227)		VETERANS(N=30)
AGE68	20.1(2.7)		23.4(2.3)***
GRCP8	12.7(2.0)		12.2(1.7)
SOCIOEC6	107.4(16.0)		106.7(14.6)
IQ	102.8(13.8)		101.4(12.4)
PAYRATE8	2.73(1.16)		3.06(0.95)*
CIVTRA8	0.19(0.39)		0.27(0.45)
CDRES8	N/A		N/A
SMSA8	2.2(0.8)		2.1(0.7)
FDUNC	35.3(22.5)		31.9(20.6)
MARSTA8	4.2(2.4)		2.7(2.3)***
OCC18	5.5(3.2)		5.9(3.3)
IND8	5.6(2.8)	*	4.6(2.6)
ROTTER	22.1(5.2)		22.8(4.8)

NON-SOUTH BLACKS (N=26)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)		
	NONVETERANS(N=24)		VETERANS(N=2)
AGE68	19.2(1.9)		25.0(1.4)***
GRCP8	11.5(1.0)		11.0(1.4)
SOCIOEC6	91.7(13.2)		103.0(14.1)
IQ	87.3(11.4)		92.5(9.2)
PAYRATE8	2.60(0.92)		2.22(0.33)
CIVTRA8	0.21(0.41)		0.0(0.0)
CDRES8	N/A		N/A
SMSA8	1.3(0.6)		1.0(0.0)
FDUNC	17.5(13.0)		19.5(17.7)
MARSTA8	4.9(2.1)		5.5(0.7)
OCC18	6.1(2.6)		5.0(1.4)
IND8	6.1(3.0)		5.0(1.4)
ROTTER	24.9(6.2)		27.0(2.8)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE C-4

1968 NEW WORKERS

SOUTH WHITES (N=101)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION) NONVETERANS(N=86)		VETERANS(N=15)
AGE68	20.2(2.8)		24.6(1.5)***
GRCP8	12.2(1.9)		11.7(1.9)
SOCIOEC6	100.5(21.6)		99.1(18.9)
IQ	98.6(14.0)		94.3(9.3)
PAYRATE8	2.37(1.07)		3.36(1.56)***
CIVTRA8	0.15(0.36)		0.33(0.49)*
CDRES8	N/A		N/A
SMSA8	2.3(0.8)		2.3(1.0)
FDUNC	35.4(25.1)		38.3(22.7)
MARSTA8	3.9(2.5)		2.2(2.1)***
OCC18	5.4(3.0)		4.8(2.8)
IND8	5.9(2.9)		5.4(3.2)
ROTTER	21.8(4.9)		18.8(3.5)***

SOUTH BLACKS (N=59)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION) NONVETERANS(N=57)		VETERANS(N=2)
AGE68	20.1(2.4)		25.0(1.4)***
GRCP8	12.1(1.5)		11.5(0.7)
SOCIOEC6	85.6(19.2)		81.0(11.3)
IQ	84.8(15.8)		91.0(1.4)
PAYRATE8	1.91(0.48)		2.04(0.37)
CIVTRA8	0.09(0.29)		0.50(0.71)**
CDRES8	N/A		N/A
SMSA8	2.0(0.9)		1.0(0.0)*
FDUNC	18.0(15.3)		15.0(11.3)
MARSTA8	4.2(2.3)		1.5(0.7)*
OCC18	7.0(3.0)	***	2.0(1.4)
IND8	5.2(2.5)		4.0(2.8)
ROTTER	22.7(4.8)		19.0(2.8)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE C-5

1968 NEW WORKERS

20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-WHITES (N=141)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=117)	VETERANS(N=24)
AGE68	21.6(1.4)	23.0(1.2)***
GRCP8	13.2(2.2)***	11.8(1.9)
SOCIOEC6	105.9(20.0)	106.9(11.6)
IQ	102.5(14.5)	99.0(11.8)
PAYRATE8	2.94(1.18)	3.09(1.32)
CIVTRA8	0.18(0.39)	0.33(0.48)*
CDRES8	4.7(2.5)	4.8(2.5)
SMSA8	2.1(0.8)	2.2(0.8)
FDUNC	36.5(23.7)	34.0(21.5)
MARSTA8	3.2(2.5)	2.5(2.2)
OCC18	4.5(3.3)	5.4(3.0)
IND8	6.6(3.1)	6.0(3.4)
ROTTER	21.8(4.9)	21.0(4.3)

20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-BLACKS (N=33)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=31)	VETERANS(N=2)
AGE68	21.5(1.5)	24.0(0.0)**
GRCP8	12.2(1.9)	11.0(1.4)
SOCIOEC6	87.4(22.0)	101.0(17.0)
IQ	83.1(16.2)	89.0(4.2)
PAYRATE8	2.21(0.81)	2.38(0.11)
CIVTRA8	0.10(0.30)	0.50(0.71)*
CDRES8	5.7(1.6)	5.0(2.8)
SMSA8	1.8(1.0)	1.0(0.0)
FDUNC	19.2(16.6)	19.5(17.7)
MARSTA8	3.8(2.4)	3.0(2.8)
OCC18	6.8(3.4) *	2.5(2.1)
IND8	5.3(2.6)	4.0(2.8)
ROTTER	23.8(5.2)	23.0(8.5)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE C-6

1968--OCCUPATIONS OF NEW FULL-TIME WORKERS (PERCENTAGES)

	ALL WORKERS WNV-(N=550) WV-(N=90) BNV-(N=284) BV-(N= 7)				NON-SOUTH WNV-(N=367) WV-(N=62) BNV-(N=94) BV-(N= 3)				SOUTH WNV-(N=183) WV-(N=28) BNV-(N=190) BV-(N= 4)				20-24 AGE WNV-(N=211) WV-(N=48) BNV-(N=109) BV-(N= 5)			
	W N V$	W V	B N V	B V	W N V$	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V	W N V$	W V	B N V%	B V
PROFESSIONAL, TECHNICAL, AND KINDRED---	16	9	4	14	19	7	3	0	9	14	5	25	27	8	9	20
MANAGERS, OFFICIALS, AND PROPRIETORS--	5	14	1	0	4	13	2	0	7	18	0	0	8	17	1	0
CLERICAL AND KINDRED---	6	6	10	14	6	5	18	0	8	7	5	25	6	8	10	0
SALES WORKERS---	6	6	1	14	7	3	4	33	3	11	0	0	8	4	1	20
CRAFTSMEN, FOREMEN, AND KINDRED---	14	26	10	14	11	27	11	33	18	21	10	0	10	25	12	20
OPERATIVES AND KINDRED---	33	24	33	29	32	26	33	33	33	21	33	25	22	23	30	20
PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD WORKERS	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SERVICE WORKERS, EXCEPT PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD------	5	4	12	0	5	5	12	0	5	4	12	0	5	4	7	0
FARMERS AND FARM MANAGERS-	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
FARM LABORERS AND FOREMEN---	3	1	5	0	3	2	0	0	4	0	7	0	2	0	6	0
LABORERS, EXCEPT FARM AND MINE------	13	10	24	14	13	13	17	0	12	4	28	25	11	10	24	20

NOTES--

(1) WNV=WHITE NONVETERAN, WV=WHITE VETERAN

(2) BNV=BLACK NONVETERAN, BV=BLACK VETERAN

(3) EACH VET VS. NONVET SAMPLE TESTED FOR SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BY CHI-SQUARE TEST: % = .1 LEVEL, & = .05 LEVEL, $ = .01 LEVEL

TABLE C-7

1968--INDUSTRIES OF NEW FULL-TIME WORKERS (PERCENTAGES)

	ALL WORKERS				NON-SOUTH				SOUTH				20-24 AGE			
	WNV-(N=550)				WNV-(N=367)				WNV-(N=183)				WNV-(N=210)			
	WV-(N=87)				WV-(N=59)				WV-(N=28)				WV-(N=47)			
	BNV-(N=279)				BNV-(N=89)				BNV-(N=190)				BNV-(N=107)			
	BV-(N= 7)				BV-(N= 3)				BV-(N= 4)				BV-(N= 5)			
	W N V	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V
	V&		V$		V%		V		V%		V$		V		V$	
AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY, AND FISHERIES-	4	2	5	0	4	3	1	0	5	0	7	0	3	2	6	0
MINING----	1	5	0	14	1	5	0	0	3	4	0	25	2	4	0	20
CONSTRUCT-	11	20	13	0	9	15	9	0	13	29	14	0	11	15	13	0
MANUFACT--	33	30	40	43	35	34	46	67	28	21	37	25	27	28	41	40
TRANSPORTATION, COMMUNICATION, AND PUBLIC UTILITIES-	7	6	5	14	8	7	1	0	6	4	6	25	6	2	5	20
WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE-----	23	23	20	29	21	24	20	33	28	21	20	25	21	23	17	20
FINANCE, INSURANCE, AND REAL ESTATE----	3	1	1	0	4	2	2	0	1	0	1	0	3	2	2	0
BUSINESS AND REPAIR SERVICES--	3	2	4	0	3	2	8	0	4	4	2	0	3	4	5	0
PERSONAL SERVICES--	1	2	3	0	1	0	1	0	1	7	4	0	1	4	1	0
ENTERTAINMENT AND RECREATION SERVICES--	1	0	2	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	1	0
PROFESSIONAL, AND RELATED SERVICES--	10	3	5	0	11	3	3	0	8	4	6	0	18	6	7	0
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION--	3	6	3	0	3	5	6	0	4	7	1	0	4	9	4	0

NOTES--

(1) WNV=WHITE NONVETERAN, WV=WHITE VETERAN

(2) BNV=BLACK NONVETERAN, BV=BLACK VETERAN

(3) EACH VET VS. NONVET SAMPLE TESTED FOR SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BY CHI-SQUARE TEST: % = .1 LEVEL, & = .05 LEVEL, $ = .01 LEVEL

APPENDIX D - EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE -- 1969

The following tables give the results found in general labor force statistics and discriminant analysis of the new workers of 1969 in the National Longitudinal Survey of young men.

TABLE D-1

1969 EMPLOYMENT STATISTICS (PERCENTAGES)

	NONVETERANS(N=2918)	VETERANS(N=407)
	WHITES	
LFPR	83.2%	92.4%
UNEM	5.7%	2.7%
SPR(FT/PT)	13.5%/2.3%	2.9%/2.0%
	NON-SOUTH WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=2046)	VETERANS(N=301)
LFPR	83.7%	93.7%
UNEM	6.2%	2.8%
SPR(FT/PT)	13.5%/2.9%	2.0%/1.3%
	SOUTH WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=872)	VETERANS(N=106)
LFPR	82.2%	88.7%
UNEM	4.5%	2.1%
SPR(FT/PT)	13.5%/1.0%	5.7%/3.8%
	20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=1092)	VETERANS(N=147)
LFPR	86.1%	87.8%
UNEM	4.0%	3.1%
SPR(FT/PT)	10.6%/2.6%	3.4%/2.0%
	BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=1046)	VETERANS(N=67)
LFPR	84.0%	79.1%
UNEM	11.3%	1.9%
SPR(FT/PT)	11.2%/1.6%	1.5%/0.0%
	NON-SOUTH BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=355)	VETERANS(N=35)
LFPR	87.9%	88.6%
UNEM	12.8%	3.2%
SPR(FT/PT)	7.3%/1.1%	0.0%/0.0%
	SOUTH BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=691)	VETERANS(N=32)
LFPR	82.1%	68.8%
UNEM	10.4%	0.0%
SPR(FT/PT)	13.2%/1.9%	3.1%/0.0%
	20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=381)	VETERANS(N=35)
LFPR	88.7%	65.7%
UNEM	7.4%	0.0%
SPR(FT/PT)	3.9%/1.6%	0.0%/0.0%

NOTES--(LFPR) = LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE
(UNEM) = UNEMPLOYMENT RATE
(SPR-FT) = SCHOOL PARTICIPATION RATE FULL-TIME
(SPR-PT) = SCHOOL PARTICIPATION RATE PART-TIME

TABLE D-2

1969 NEW WORKERS

WHITES (N=319)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=282)	VETERANS(N=37)
AGE69	20.9(2.9)	24.7(2.5)***
GRCP9	12.8(2.0)	12.5(1.4)
SOCIOEC6	106.2(20.0)	105.6(14.8)
IQ	101.6(15.3)	101.9(12.5)
PAYRATE9	3.04(1.18)	3.71(1.64)***
CIVTRA9	0.19(0.39)	0.27(0.45)
CDRES9	4.7(2.5)	4.7(2.7)
SMSA9	2.1(0.8)	2.1(0.9)
FDUNC	37.3(23.2)	37.6(24.4)
MARSTA9	3.9(2.4)	2.6(2.3)***
OCC19	5.1(3.0)	5.3(2.9)
IND9	5.5(2.8)	5.3(2.5)
ROTTER	22.2(5.2)	20.9(4.9)

BLACKS (N=93)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=89)	VETERANS(N=4)
AGE69	20.6(2.6)	26.8(0.5)***
GRCP9	12.1(1.6)	11.5(1.0)
SOCIOEC6	91.1(18.1)	87.3(31.6)
IQ	85.7(15.2)	84.5(16.3)
PAYRATE9	2.60(1.08)	2.98(0.53)
CIVTRA9	0.07(0.25)	0.25(0.50)
CDRES9	5.0(2.1)	4.0(1.8)
SMSA9	1.6(0.8)	1.0(0.0)*
FDUNC	16.4(11.1)	27.5(20.0)**
MARSTA9	4.1(2.4)	2.0(2.0)*
OCC19	6.5(3.2)	5.3(1.0)
IND9	5.8(3.0)	5.5(1.9)
ROTTER	24.2(5.6)	21.0(4.9)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE D-3

1969 NEW WORKERS

NON-SOUTH WHITES (N=227)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=201)	VETERANS(N=26)
AGE69	21.0(2.9)	24.2(2.7)***
GRCP9	12.9(2.0)*	12.3(1.2)
SOCIOEC6	109.1(18.7)	105.9(14.4)
IQ	103.4(14.9)	104.0(12.2)
PAYRATE9	3.22(1.15)	3.49(1.30)
CIVTRA9	0.19(0.39)	0.31(0.47)
CDRES9	N/A	N/A
SMSA9	2.0(0.7)	1.9(0.9)
FDUNC	39.0(23.6)	37.7(26.5)
MARSTA9	4.0(2.4)	3.0(2.4)**
OCC19	4.8(2.9)	5.4(3.0)
IND9	5.7(2.8)	5.1(2.4)
ROTTER	22.1(5.1)	21.2(5.3)

NON-SOUTH BLACKS (N=36)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=34)	VETERANS(N=2)
AGE69	20.1(2.9)	26.5(0.7)***
GRCP9	12.0(1.1)	11.0(1.4)
SOCIOEC6	94.9(13.9)	79.0(45.3)
IQ	87.6(14.1)*	71.0(7.1)
PAYRATE9	3.08(0.96)	2.75(0.64)
CIVTRA9	0.06(0.24)	0.0(0.0)
CDRES9	N/A	N/A
SMSA9	1.4(0.7)	1.0(0.0)
FDUNC	17.7(11.6)	32.5(26.2)*
MARSTA9	4.8(2.2)	1.0(0.0)***
OCC19	6.1(3.5)	5.5(0.7)
IND9	6.2(3.1)	6.0(2.8)
ROTTER	25.9(5.9)	24.0(4.2)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE D-4

1969 NEW WORKERS

SOUTH WHITES (N=92)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=81)	VETERANS(N=11)
AGE69	20.8(2.8)	26.0(0.9)***
GRCP9	12.4(2.0)	12.9(1.9)
SOCIOEC6	98.9(21.3)	104.9(16.2)
IQ	97.2(15.3)	97.0(12.3)
PAYRATE9	2.58(1.14)	4.25(2.22)***
CIVTRA9	0.20(0.40)	0.18(0.40)
CDRES9	N/A	N/A
SMSA9	2.5(0.8)	2.5(0.8)
FDUNC	33.2(21.8)	37.5(19.8)
MARSTA9	3.6(2.5)	1.7(1.7)***
OCC19	5.9(3.2)	5.1(2.7)
IND9	5.2(2.8)	5.8(2.7)
ROTTER	22.4(5.4)	20.3(3.9)

SOUTH BLACKS (N=57)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=55)	VETERANS(N=2)
AGE69	20.9(2.4)	27.0(0.0)***
GRCP9	12.2(1.9)	12.0(0.0)
SOCIOEC6	88.9(20.1)	95.5(26.2)
IQ	84.5(15.8)	98.0(4.2)
PAYRATE9	2.30(1.05)	3.22(0.47)*=.23
CIVTRA9	0.07(0.26)	0.50(0.71)**
CDRES9	N/A	N/A
SMSA9	1.8(0.9)	1.0(0.0)
FDUNC	15.6(10.8)	22.5(20.5)
MARSTA9	3.6(2.5)	3.0(2.8)
OCC19	6.8(3.1)	5.0(1.4)
IND9	5.5(2.9)	5.0(1.4)
ROTTER	23.1(5.2)	18.0(4.2)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE D-5

1969 NEW WORKERS

20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-WHITES (N=135)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=129)	VETERANS(N=6)
AGE69	21.7(1.3)	22.3(1.6)
GRCP9	13.3(2.3)	12.5(0.8)
SOCIOEC6	108.3(20.9)	108.2(11.4)
IQ	103.1(17.0)	103.5(8.4)
PAYRATE9	3.32(1.10)	2.97(1.41)
CIVTRA9	0.22(0.42)	0.33(0.52)
CDRES9	4.7(2.6)	4.7(3.5)
SMSA9	2.1(0.8)	1.7(0.8)
FDUNC	39.3(23.7)	49.5(32.6)
MARSTA9	3.2(2.4)	3.5(2.7)
OCC19	4.6(3.1)	4.8(1.3)
IND9	5.9(3.1)	6.2(3.1)
ROTTER	22.8(5.4)	24.3(6.6)

20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-BLACKS (N=38)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=38)	VETERANS(N=0)
AGE69	21.7(1.4)	N/A
GRCP9	12.0(2.0)	N/A
SOCIOEC6	89.9(18.1)	N/A
IQ	82.9(15.5)	N/A
PAYRATE9	2.56(0.90)	N/A
CIVTRA9	0.08(0.27)	N/A
CDRES9	5.4(2.0)	N/A
SMSA9	1.6(0.9)	N/A
FDUNC	15.6(10.3)	N/A
MARSTA9	3.9(2.5)	N/A
OCC19	6.8(3.3)	N/A
IND9	5.4(2.7)	N/A
ROTTER	24.7(6.2)	N/A

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE D-6

1969--OCCUPATIONS OF NEW FULL-TIME WORKERS (PERCENTAGES)

	ALL WORKERS WNV-(N=531) WV-(N=114) BNV-(N=283) BV-(N=15)				NON-SOUTH WNV-(N=360) WV-(N=78) BNV-(N=100) BV-(N= 6)				SOUTH WNV-(N=171) WV-(N=36) BNV-(N=183) BV-(N= 9)				20-24 AGE WNV-(N=225) WV-(N=50) BNV-(N=103) BV-(N= 9)			
	W N V	W V	B N V$	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V$	B V	W N V&	W V	B N V	B V
PROFESSIONAL, TECHNICAL, AND KINDRED---	14	9	5	7	17	13	6	17	9	0	4	0	24	4	8	11
MANAGERS, OFFICIALS, AND PROPRIETORS--	6	9	1	0	6	10	4	0	6	6	0	0	6	6	2	0
CLERICAL AND KINDRED---	9	10	11	0	10	10	16	0	6	8	9	0	8	14	8	0
SALES WORKERS---	7	11	0	7	7	10	0	0	7	14	0	11	5	14	0	0
CRAFTSMEN, FOREMEN, AND KINDRED---	16	15	9	7	16	15	10	17	16	14	9	0	16	18	11	0
OPERATIVES AND KINDRED---	28	28	38	67	27	23	36	50	31	39	39	78	22	26	41	67
PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD WORK-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SERVICE WORKERS, EXCEPT PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD------	3	6	10	0	4	8	8	0	2	3	12	0	4	6	7	0
FARMERS AND FARM MANAGERS-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FARM LABORERS AND FOREMEN---	2	0	5	0	1	0	2	0	5	0	7	0	2	0	4	0
LABORERS, EXCEPT FARM AND MINE------	14	12	20	13	12	10	18	17	16	17	21	11	12	12	20	22

NOTES--

(1) WNV=WHITE NONVETERAN, WV=WHITE VETERAN

(2) BNV=BLACK NONVETERAN, BV=BLACK VETERAN

(3) EACH VET VS. NONVET SAMPLE TESTED FOR SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BY CHI-SQUARE TEST: % = .1 LEVEL, & = .05 LEVEL, $ = .01 LEVEL

TABLE D-7

1969--INDUSTRIES OF NEW FULL-TIME WORKERS (PERCENTAGES)

	ALL WORKERS WNV-(N=532) WV-(N=114) BNV-(N=282) BV-(N=15)				NON-SOUTH WNV-(N=361) WV-(N=78) BNV-(N=100) BV-(N= 6)				SOUTH WNV-(N=171) WV-(N=36) BNV-(N=182) BV-(N= 9)				20-24 AGE WNV-(N=225) WV-(N=50) BNV-(N=103) BV-(N= 9)			
	W N V$	W V	B N V%	B V	W N V%	W V	B N V	B V	W N V%	W V	B N V	B V	W N V&	W V	B N V%	B V
AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY, AND FISHERIES-	4	0	6	0	2	0	2	0	7	0	8	0	3	0	4	0
MINING----	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
CONSTRUCT-	15	13	11	0	13	13	14	0	17	14	9	0	17	6	12	0
MANUFACT--	31	33	36	53	32	33	32	67	30	33	37	44	24	38	38	44
TRANSPORTATION, COMMUNICATION, AND PUBLIC UTILITIES-	8	10	8	7	8	10	11	0	7	8	6	11	9	10	10	11
WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE-----	20	20	20	13	20	19	14	0	21	22	23	22	16	22	20	11
FINANCE, INSURANCE, AND REAL ESTATE----	4	5	1	0	4	5	1	0	4	6	2	0	5	4	1	0
BUSINESS AND REPAIR SERVICES--	3	6	5	20	3	5	7	17	2	8	4	22	3	8	3	22
PERSONAL SERVICES--	1	2	2	0	2	1	5	0	0	3	1	0	1	4	4	0
ENTERTAINMENT AND RECREATION SERVICES--	0	2	1	7	1	3	1	17	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	11
PROFESSIONAL, AND RELATED SERVICES--	10	3	6	0	12	3	7	0	7	3	6	0	15	2	6	0
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION--	2	6	4	0	3	8	6	0	2	3	2	0	4	6	2	0

NOTES--

(1) WNV=WHITE NONVETERAN, WV=WHITE VETERAN

(2) BNV=BLACK NONVETERAN, BV=BLACK VETERAN

(3) EACH VET VS. NONVET SAMPLE TESTED FOR SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BY CHI-SQUARE TEST: % = .1 LEVEL, & = .05 LEVEL, $ = .01 LEVEL

APPENDIX E - EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE -- 1970

The following tables give the results found in general labor force statistics and discriminant analysis of the new workers of 1970 in the National Longitudinal Survey of young men.

TABLE E-1

1970 EMPLOYMENT STATISTICS (PERCENTAGES)

	NONVETERANS(N=2913)	VETERANS(N=546)
	WHITES	
LFPR	86.1%	91.6%
UNEM	6.1%	6.2%
SPR(FT/PT)	10.5%/2.0%	2.4%/2.6%
	NON-SOUTH WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=2042)	VETERANS(N=394)
LFPR	86.3%	92.9%
UNEM	6.4%	6.3%
SPR(FT/PT)	10.5%/2.2%	2.0%/2.8%
	SOUTH WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=871)	VETERANS(N=152)
LFPR	85.6%	88.2%
UNEM	5.2%	6.0%
SPR(FT/PT)	10.4%/1.6%	3.3%/2.0%
	20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=1281)	VETERANS(N=230)
LFPR	87.0%	85.7%
UNEM	6.6%	9.1%
SPR(FT/PT)	9.3%/2.2%	3.9%/3.9%
	BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=1021)	VETERANS(N=117)
LFPR	88.7%	88.9%
UNEM	12.0%	12.5%
SPR(FT/PT)	6.7%/1.0%	2.6%/1.7%
	NON-SOUTH BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=355)	VETERANS(N=61)
LFPR	89.3%	90.2%
UNEM	18.6%	16.4%
SPR(FT/PT)	4.8%/1.0%	3.3%/1.6%
	SOUTH BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=666)	VETERANS(N=56)
LFPR	88.4%	87.5%
UNEM	8.5%	8.2%
SPR(FT/PT)	7.7%/1.2%	1.8%/1.8%
	20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=490)	VETERANS(N=77)
LFPR	90.2%	87.0%
UNEM	11.8%	14.9%
SPR(FT/PT)	5.3%/1.0%	2.6%/1.3%

NOTES--(LFPR) = LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE
(UNEM) = UNEMPLOYMENT RATE
(SPR-FT) = SCHOOL PARTICIPATION RATE FULL-TIME
(SPR-PT) = SCHOOL PARTICIPATION RATE PART-TIME

TABLE E-2

1970 NEW WORKERS

WHITES (N=278)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)		
	NONVETERANS(N=240)		VETERANS(N=38)
AGE70	21.8(2.7)		24.9(2.7)***
GRCP0	13.2(1.9)***		12.1(1.4)
SOCIOEC6	108.9(17.6)*		104.4(17.0)
IQ	103.7(13.6)***		97.7(12.0)
PAYRATE0	3.19(1.54)		3.09(1.10)
CIVTRA0	0.18(0.39)		0.29(0.46)*
CDRES0	4.5(2.5)	**	5.3(2.8)
SMSA0	2.2(0.8)		2.3(0.7)
FDUNC	40.6(23.7)		38.1(26.7)
MARSTA0	3.4(2.5)		2.8(2.3)*
OCC10	4.7(2.9)		5.2(2.0)
IND0	6.1(3.0)		6.0(3.1)
ROTTER	21.9(4.9)		19.6(4.5)***

BLACKS (N=52)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=47)	VETERANS(N=5)
AGE70	21.7(2.4)	26.4(3.0)***
GRCP0	12.0(1.5)	11.4(0.9)
SOCIOEC6	90.5(20.7)	78.2(22.9)
IQ	82.1(14.7)	79.6(12.4)
PAYRATE0	2.65(1.35)	2.77(0.86)
CIVTRA0	0.09(0.28)	0.0(0.0)
CDRES0	4.9(2.0)	4.2(1.6)
SMSA0	1.8(0.9)	1.4(0.9)
FDUNC	17.7(15.6)	24.6(16.5)
MARSTA0	4.0(2.4)	1.0(0.0)***
OCC10	5.7(2.8)	6.6(2.6)
IND0	6.0(3.0)	4.8(1.1)
ROTTER	22.6(4.7)	21.0(4.2)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE E-3

1970 NEW WORKERS

NON-SOUTH WHITES (N=201)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=170)	VETERANS(N=31)
AGE70	22.0(2.8)	25.0(2.5)***
GRCP0	13.3(2.0)***	12.1(1.3)
SOCIOEC6	110.8(15.8)***	103.8(15.4)
IQ	104.8(13.8)***	98.3(11.4)
PAYRATE0	3.31(1.55)	3.19(1.17)
CIVTRA0	0.20(0.40)	0.29(0.46)
CDRES0	N/A	N/A
SMSA0	2.1(0.7)	2.2(0.8)
FDUNC	41.2(23.5)	38.0(26.7)
MARSTA0	3.6(2.5)	3.0(2.3)
OCC10	4.9(3.1)	5.5(2.0)
IND0	6.2(3.1)	5.9(3.1)
ROTTER	22.2(5.0)	19.6(4.6)***

NON-SOUTH BLACKS (N=20)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=18)	VETERANS(N=2)
AGE70	21.3(2.0)	27.5(0.7)***
GRCP0	11.6(1.6)	11.0(1.4)
SOCIOEC6	92.4(14.2)	79.0(45.3)
IQ	84.7(13.4)	71.0(7.1)
PAYRATE0	3.14(1.90)	3.63(0.61)
CIVTRA0	0.0(0.0)	0.0(0.0)
CDRES0	N/A	N/A
SMSA0	1.4(0.6)	1.0(0.0)
FDUNC	13.3(7.0)	32.5(26.2)***
MARSTA0	4.4(2.4)	1.0(0.0)**
OCC10	6.1(2.9)	8.5(3.5)
IND0	7.0(3.1)	5.0(1.4)
ROTTER	23.0(4.9)	24.0(4.2)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE E-4

1970 NEW WORKERS

SOUTH WHITES (N=77)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=70)	VETERANS(N=7)
AGE70	21.5(2.4)	24.4(3.6)***
GRCP0	12.9(1.9)	11.9(1.8)
SOCIOEC6	104.1(20.7)	107.0(24.4)
IQ	100.9(12.9)	95.0(15.3)
PAYRATE0	2.89(1.50)	2.64(0.64)
CIVTRA0	0.14(0.35)	0.29(0.49)
CDRES0	N/A	N/A
SMSA0	2.5(0.8)	2.6(0.5)
FDUNC	39.0(24.3)	38.6(28.7)
MARSTA0	3.0(2.4)	1.7(1.9)
OCC10	4.5(2.5)	3.9(1.5)
IND0	5.7(2.5)	6.4(2.8)
ROTTER	21.2(4.4)	19.7(4.2)

SOUTH BLACKS (N=32)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=29)	VETERANS(N=3)
AGE70	21.9(2.7)	25.7(4.0)**
GRCP0	12.3(1.5)	11.7(0.6)
SOCIOEC6	89.3(24.1)	77.7(5.0)
IQ	80.5(15.5)	85.3(12.7)
PAYRATE0	2.34(0.75)	2.20(0.26)
CIVTRA0	0.14(0.35)	0.0(0.0)
CDRES0	N/A	N/A
SMSA0	2.0(0.9)	1.7(1.2)
FDUNC	20.4(18.8)	19.3(10.0)
MARSTA0	3.8(2.5)	1.0(0.0)**
OCC10	5.4(2.8)	5.3(1.2)
IND0	5.4(2.8)	4.7(1.2)
ROTTER	22.3(4.6)	19.0(3.5)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE E-5

1970 NEW WORKERS

20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-WHITES (N=154)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION) NONVETERANS(N=142)	VETERANS(N=12)
AGE70	21.7(1.4)	21.8(1.7)
GRCP0	13.3(1.9)*	12.5(1.2)
SOCIOEC6	110.1(18.8)	108.4(15.8)
IQ	103.0(13.8)	101.4(13.8)
PAYRATE0	3.21(1.57)	2.79(0.64)
CIVTRA0	0.18(0.39)	0.25(0.45)
CDRES0	4.5(2.5)	5.1(2.4)
SMSA0	2.2(0.8)	2.3(0.7)
FDUNC	41.0(24.1)	39.7(27.5)
MARSTA0	3.2(2.5)	3.9(2.6)
OCC10	4.6(3.0)	4.8(1.7)
IND0	6.1(2.9)	5.7(1.6)
ROTTER	22.4(4.8)	21.6(5.3)

20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-BLACKS (N=31)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION) NONVETERANS(N=30)	VETERANS(N=1)
AGE70	21.7(1.3)	21.0
GRCP0	12.3(1.7)	12.0
SOCIOEC6	92.2(22.0)	83.0
IQ	84.2(16.2)	71.0
PAYRATE0	2.58(0.82)	2.05
CIVTRA0	0.07(0.25)	0.0
CDRES0	4.6(2.2)	5.0
SMSA0	1.8(0.9)	3.0
FDUNC	18.0(17.3)	27.0
MARSTA0	4.0(2.4)	1.0
OCC10	5.4(2.7)	6.0
IND0	6.4(3.0)	4.0
ROTTER	22.0(5.1)	15.0

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE E-6

1970--OCCUPATIONS OF NEW FULL-TIME WORKERS (PERCENTAGES)

	ALL WORKERS WNV-(N=540) WV-(N=143) BNV-(N=234) BV-(N=39)				NON-SOUTH WNV-(N=361) WV-(N=100) BNV-(N=62) BV-(N=17)				SOUTH WNV-(N=179) WV-(N=43) BNV-(N=172) BV-(N=22)				20-24 AGE WNV-(N=262) WV-(N=78) BNV-(N=116) BV-(N=28)			
	W N V	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V
PROFESSIONAL, TECHNICAL, AND KINDRED---	12	11	6	3	14	11	8	0	8	9	5	5	16	9	10	0
MANAGERS, OFFICIALS, AND PROPRIETORS--	11	10	3	5	11	10	3	12	11	9	3	0	10	8	5	4
CLERICAL AND KINDRED---	7	8	12	8	7	6	18	6	7	14	10	9	8	10	13	11
SALES WORKERS---	7	5	2	8	5	4	3	6	9	7	1	9	8	5	2	4
CRAFTSMEN, FOREMEN, AND KINDRED---	18	22	11	8	17	23	8	6	20	21	12	9	17	19	10	11
OPERATIVES AND KINDRED---	26	23	28	36	26	23	32	41	27	23	27	32	24	28	27	32
PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD WORK-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SERVICE WORKERS, EXCEPT PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD------	5	9	11	10	5	11	10	6	5	5	11	14	6	8	11	14
FARMERS AND FARM MANAGERS-	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
FARM LABORERS AND FOREMEN---	3	2	4	0	3	1	0	0	3	5	6	0	2	3	3	0
LABORERS, EXCEPT FARM AND MINE------	10	10	23	23	12	11	18	24	8	7	25	23	8	10	18	25

NOTES--

(1) WNV=WHITE NONVETERAN, WV=WHITE VETERAN

(2) BNV=BLACK NONVETERAN, BV=BLACK VETERAN

(3) EACH VET VS. NONVET SAMPLE TESTED FOR SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BY CHI-SQUARE TEST: % = .1 LEVEL, & = .05 LEVEL, $ = .01 LEVEL

TABLE E-7

1970--INDUSTRIES OF NEW FULL-TIME WORKERS (PERCENTAGES)

	ALL WORKERS WNV-(N=535) WV-(N=143) BNV-(N=232) BV-(N=38)				NON-SOUTH WNV-(N=357) WV-(N=100) BNV-(N=60) BV-(N=17)				SOUTH WNV-(N=178) WV-(N=43) BNV-(N=172) BV-(N=21)				20-24 AGE WNV-(N=259) WV-(N=78) BNV-(N=116) BV-(N=28)			
	W N V	W V	B N V%	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V
AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY, AND FISHERIES-	6	2	8	3	5	1	2	0	7	5	11	5	4	3	6	4
MINING----	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
CONSTRUCT-	14	19	12	5	13	16	5	0	15	26	15	10	17	14	10	7
MANUFACT--	25	26	29	55	25	27	38	71	24	23	26	43	25	32	32	61
TRANSPORTATION, COMMUNICATION, AND PUBLIC UTILITIES-	6	9	8	0	7	10	3	0	3	7	10	0	5	12	9	0
WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE-----	23	20	17	18	23	21	18	18	25	19	16	19	21	23	14	11
FINANCE, INSURANCE, AND REAL ESTATE----	4	6	3	0	4	6	3	0	3	7	2	0	5	8	3	0
BUSINESS AND REPAIR SERVICES--	5	5	4	5	5	6	7	0	7	2	3	10	5	4	4	7
PERSONAL SERVICES--	2	1	2	0	2	2	0	0	2	0	3	0	2	1	2	0
ENTERTAINMENT AND RECREATION SERVICES--	1	1	1	0	1	1	2	0	1	2	1	0	1	1	1	0
PROFESSIONAL, AND RELATED SERVICES--	10	5	12	11	12	4	17	12	7	7	11	10	12	3	16	11
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION--	4	4	3	3	4	5	5	0	3	2	2	5	4	0	3	0

NOTES--

(1) WNV=WHITE NONVETERAN, WV=WHITE VETERAN

(2) BNV=BLACK NONVETERAN, BV=BLACK VETERAN

(3) EACH VET VS. NONVET SAMPLE TESTED FOR SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BY CHI-SQUARE TEST: % = .1 LEVEL, & = .05 LEVEL, $ = .01 LEVEL

APPENDIX F - EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE -- 1971

The following tables give the results found in general labor force statistics and discriminant analysis of the new workers of 1971 in the National Longitudinal Survey of young men.

TABLE F-1

1971 EMPLOYMENT STATISTICS (PERCENTAGES)

	NONVETERANS(N=2956)	VETERANS(N=706)
	WHITES	
LFPR	90.3%	92.6%
UNEM	5.9%	8.1%
SPR(FT/PT)	7.0%/1.8%	4.7%/2.4%
	NON-SOUTH WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=2064)	VETERANS(N=500)
LFPR	90.0%	92.8%
UNEM	6.2%	8.4%
SPR(FT/PT)	7.8%/1.7%	4.6%/1.8%
	SOUTH WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=892)	VETERANS(N=206)
LFPR	91.1%	92.2%
UNEM	5.0%	7.4%
SPR(FT/PT)	5.2%/1.9%	4.8%/3.9%
	20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=1512)	VETERANS(N=342)
LFPR	89.1%	89.5%
UNEM	7.5%	12.4%
SPR(FT/PT)	8.3%/1.8%	7.0%/2.9%
	BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=989)	VETERANS(N=171)
LFPR	90.5%	91.2%
UNEM	10.4%	12.2%
SPR(FT/PT)	4.1%/1.2%	2.9%/1.8%
	NON-SOUTH BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=356)	VETERANS(N=75)
LFPR	88.2%	90.7%
UNEM	13.4%	13.2%
SPR(FT/PT)	4.5%/1.4%	5.3%/1.3%
	SOUTH BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=633)	VETERANS(N=96)
LFPR	91.8%	91.7%
UNEM	8.8%	11.4%
SPR(FT/PT)	3.9%/1.1%	1.0%/2.1%
	20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=551)	VETERANS(N=120)
LFPR	90.0%	90.8%
UNEM	11.9%	14.9%
SPR(FT/PT)	5.1%/1.5%	3.3%/2.5%

NOTES--(LFPR) = LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE
(UNEM) = UNEMPLOYMENT RATE
(SPR-FT) = SCHOOL PARTICIPATION RATE FULL-TIME
(SPR-PT) = SCHOOL PARTICIPATION RATE PART-TIME

TABLE F-2

1971 NEW WORKERS

WHITES (N=316)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)		
	NONVETERANS(N=248)		VETERANS(N=68)
AGE71	22.6(2.7)		24.5(3.2)***
GRCP1	13.5(2.2)***		12.6(2.1)
SOCIOEC6	109.7(17.5)		107.0(16.0)
IQ	103.6(15.0)*		100.6(13.5)
PAYRATE1	3.26(1.55)		3.77(2.14)**
CIVTRA1	0.19(0.39)		0.19(0.40)
CDRES1	0.3(0.5)		0.3(0.5)
SMSA1	2.0(0.8)		2.1(0.7)
FDUNC	38.9(23.6)		37.1(22.9)
MARSTA1	3.3(2.5)		2.5(2.2)***
OCC11	4.7(2.9)		5.2(2.7)
IND1	6.1(3.0)	*	5.4(2.5)
ROTTER	23.0(5.3)		22.7(5.0)

BLACKS (N=52)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=37)	VETERANS(N=15)
AGE71	22.9(2.8)	24.4(3.4)*
GRCP1	12.6(2.2)	12.0(1.4)
SOCIOEC6	91.7(18.5)	90.7(14.3)
IQ	83.2(14.0)	88.5(12.6)
PAYRATE1	2.95(1.73)	2.83(0.84)
CIVTRA1	0.22(0.42)	0.27(0.46)
CDRES1	0.7(0.5)	0.6(0.5)
SMSA1	1.8(0.9)	1.5(0.8)
FDUNC	20.1(15.9)	19.3(11.4)
MARSTA1	3.8(2.5)	2.9(2.5)
OCC11	5.4(3.3)	5.8(2.0)
IND1	6.8(3.4)	6.4(3.2)
ROTTER	24.7(5.7)	23.2(6.4)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE F-3

1971 NEW WORKERS

NON-SOUTH WHITES (N=224)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)		
	NONVETERANS(N=176)		VETERANS(N=48)
AGE71	22.5(2.7)		24.9(3.2)***
GRCP1	13.5(2.0)***		12.6(2.2)
SOCIOEC6	112.2(15.1)**		107.0(15.5)
IQ	103.6(14.2)*		99.8(14.5)
PAYRATE1	3.34(1.56)		3.71(1.62)*
CIVTRA1	0.18(0.38)		0.21(0.41)
CDRES1	N/A		N/A
SMSA1	2.0(0.8)		2.1(0.7)
FDUNC	39.1(23.6)		34.8(21.7)
MARSTA1	3.6(2.5)		2.3(2.1)***
OCC11	4.8(2.9)	*	5.5(2.7)
IND1	6.1(2.9)	***	5.0(2.3)
ROTTER	23.0(5.2)		22.7(5.5)

NON-SOUTH BLACKS (N=18)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)		
	NONVETERANS(N=12)		VETERANS(N=6)
AGE71	23.3(2.8)		26.5(3.1)**
GRCP1	13.8(1.9)***		11.5(1.4)
SOCIOEC6	104.7(14.9)		101.0(10.5)
IQ	91.2(13.6)		84.8(14.3)
PAYRATE1	4.07(2.41)		3.10(0.89)
CIVTRA1	0.25(0.45)		0.33(0.52)
CDRES1	N/A		N/A
SMSA1	1.3(0.5)		1.0(0.0)
FDUNC	25.3(17.0)		26.5(13.8)
MARSTA1	4.8(2.3)		4.2(2.5)
OCC11	2.9(3.2)	***	6.3(1.4)
IND1	8.7(3.1)	**	5.5(2.8)
ROTTER	25.5(5.7)		25.3(9.7)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE F-4

1971 NEW WORKERS

SOUTH WHITES (N=92)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=72)	VETERANS(N=20)
AGE71	22.7(2.6)	23.6(3.2)
GRCP1	13.6(2.5)	12.9(2.0)
SOCIOEC6	103.5(21.1)	106.9(17.5)
IQ	103.5(16.9)	102.3(10.8)
PAYRATE1	3.08(1.52)	3.90(3.10)*
CIVTRA1	0.21(0.41)	0.15(0.37)
CDRES1	N/A	N/A
SMSA1	2.2(0.9)	2.1(0.8)
FDUNC	38.6(23.7)	42.6(25.2)
MARSTA1	2.8(2.4)	2.8(2.4)
OCC11	4.5(3.0)	4.5(2.6)
IND1	6.1(3.3)	6.2(2.9)
ROTTER	22.9(5.4)	22.7(3.5)

SOUTH BLACKS (N=34)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=25)	VETERANS(N=9)
AGE71	22.7(2.9)	23.0(2.9)
GRCP1	12.0(2.0)	12.3(1.4)
SOCIOEC6	85.5(17.0)	83.8(12.4)
IQ	79.4(12.8)	90.9(11.4)***
PAYRATE1	2.41(0.94)	2.66(0.81)
CIVTRA1	0.20(0.41)	0.22(0.44)
CDRES1	N/A	N/A
SMSA1	2.0(1.0)	1.8(0.0)
FDUNC	17.6(15.1)	14.6(6.6)
MARSTA1	3.3(2.5)	2.1(2.2)
OCC11	6.6(2.6)	5.4(2.4)
IND1	6.0(3.2)	7.0(3.5)
ROTTER	24.3(5.6)	21.8(2.5)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE F-5

1971 NEW WORKERS

20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-WHITES (N=208)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)		
	NONVETERANS(N=176)		VETERANS(N=32)
AGE71	21.7(1.3)		21.8(1.2)
GRCP1	13.5(2.0)***		12.4(1.3)
SOCIOEC6	109.0(16.8)*		104.5(15.1)
IQ	103.9(15.6)		100.7(12.7)
PAYRATE1	3.13(1.40)		3.02(0.84)
CIVTRA1	0.19(0.40)		0.13(0.34)
CDRES1	0.3(0.5)		0.3(0.5)
SMSA1	2.1(0.8)		2.2(0.6)
FDUNC	37.5(23.0)		35.1(21.6)
MARSTA1	3.5(2.5)		2.9(2.4)
OCC11	4.8(2.8)		5.5(2.6)
IND1	5.9(2.9)	*	5.0(2.1)
ROTTER	23.4(5.4)		22.7(4.7)

20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-BLACKS (N=35)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)		
	NONVETERANS(N=27)		VETERANS(N=8)
AGE71	21.6(1.4)		21.6(1.3)
GRCP1	12.6(2.2)		11.8(0.5)
SOCIOEC6	90.0(18.5)		83.9(11.6)
IQ	81.6(14.4)		88.9(11.8)
PAYRATE1	2.75(1.44)		2.72(0.79)
CIVTRA1	0.22(0.42)		0.38(0.52)
CDRES1	0.7(0.4)		0.9(0.4)
SMSA1	1.7(0.9)		1.9(1.0)
FDUNC	19.3(15.0)		16.5(7.7)
MARSTA1	4.0(2.4)		2.3(2.3)**
OCC11	5.6(3.0)		5.8(1.7)
IND1	6.6(3.2)		5.6(2.9)
ROTTER	24.6(6.0)		24.6(7.5)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE

TABLE F-6

1971--OCCUPATIONS OF NEW FULL-TIME WORKERS (PERCENTAGES)

	ALL WORKERS				NON-SOUTH				SOUTH				20-24 AGE			
	WNV-(N=493)				WNV-(N=326)				WNV-(N=167)				WNV-(N=294)			
	WV-(N=210)				WV-(N=140)				WV-(N=70)				WV-(N=117)			
	BNV-(N=173)				BNV-(N=54)				BNV-(N=119)				BNV-(N=96)			
	BV-(N=62)				BV-(N=24)				BV-(N=38)				BV-(N=48)			
	W N V$	W V	B N V	B V	W N V$	W V	B N V	B V	W N V%	W V	B N V	B V	W N V$	W V	B N V	B V
PROFESSIONAL, TECHNICAL, AND KINDRED---	16	8	7	2	18	6	15	0	13	11	3	3	13	3	7	0
MANAGERS, OFFICIALS, AND PROPRIETORS--	9	10	1	2	9	9	2	0	9	11	1	3	9	9	1	2
CLERICAL AND KINDRED---	8	6	8	10	8	4	13	4	8	10	6	13	11	8	7	13
SALES WORKERS---	8	11	1	0	9	11	2	0	7	10	1	0	8	9	2	0
CRAFTSMEN, FOREMEN, AND KINDRED---	18	25	9	18	16	23	7	17	22	29	9	18	22	24	10	19
OPERATIVES AND KINDRED---	24	22	35	39	22	26	32	42	26	14	36	37	20	26	37	40
PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD WORK-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SERVICE WORKERS, EXCEPT PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD------	4	8	14	13	6	8	11	21	2	9	15	8	6	12	13	10
FARMERS AND FARM MANAGERS-	1	2	0	0	0	3	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0
FARM LABORERS AND FOREMEN---	3	3	5	2	4	4	0	0	2	1	8	3	3	3	5	2
LABORERS, EXCEPT FARM AND MINE------	9	5	20	16	9	6	19	17	11	3	21	16	9	6	18	15

NOTES--

(1) WNV=WHITE NONVETERAN, WV=WHITE VETERAN

(2) BNV=BLACK NONVETERAN, BV=BLACK VETERAN

(3) EACH VET VS. NONVET SAMPLE TESTED FOR SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BY CHI-SQUARE TEST: % = .1 LEVEL, & = .05 LEVEL, $ = .01 LEVEL

TABLE F-7

1971--INDUSTRIES OF NEW FULL-TIME WORKERS (PERCENTAGES)

	ALL WORKERS				NON-SOUTH				SOUTH				20-24 AGE			
	WNV-(N=493)				WNV-(N=326)				WNV-(N=167)				WNV-(N=294)			
	WV-(N=210)				WV-(N=140)				WV-(N=70)				WV-(N=117)			
	BNV-(N=172)				BNV-(N=54)				BNV-(N=118)				BNV-(N=96)			
	BV-(N=62)				BV-(N=24)				BV-(N=38)				BV-(N=48)			
	W N V%	W V	B N V	B V	W N V$	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V	B V
AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY, AND FISHERIES-	6	7	8	2	5	9	0	0	6	4	11	3	5	7	7	2
MINING----	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	2	0	1	0	1	0
CONSTRUCT-	14	17	15	8	11	15	9	4	22	21	17	11	15	15	13	8
MANUFACT--	22	21	29	39	23	21	28	58	21	20	30	26	21	26	29	38
TRANSPORTATION, COMMUNICATION, AND PUBLIC UTILITIES-	5	10	6	7	5	12	11	4	5	6	4	8	4	8	7	8
WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE-----	23	24	19	24	23	27	22	17	23	19	17	29	24	28	21	23
FINANCE, INSURANCE, AND REAL ESTATE----	5	5	2	2	6	2	2	0	4	11	2	3	7	4	3	2
BUSINESS AND REPAIR SERVICES--	6	4	6	2	6	4	7	0	4	4	5	3	5	5	5	2
PERSONAL SERVICES--	1	0	2	5	1	0	4	8	1	0	1	3	1	0	1	6
ENTERTAINMENT AND RECREATION SERVICES--	1	0	2	0	2	0	4	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	2	0
PROFESSIONAL, AND RELATED SERVICES--	11	6	6	10	14	4	7	4	6	10	6	13	10	3	5	6
PUBLIC ADMINI-STRATION--	6	4	5	3	5	4	6	4	7	3	4	3	6	4	5	4

NOTES--

(1) WNV=WHITE NONVETERAN, WV=WHITE VETERAN

(2) BNV=BLACK NONVETERAN, BV=BLACK VETERAN

(3) EACH VET VS. NONVET SAMPLE TESTED FOR SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BY CHI-SQUARE TEST: % = .1 LEVEL, & = .05 LEVEL, $ = .01 LEVEL

APPENDIX G - EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE -- 1973

The following tables give the results found in general labor force statistics and discriminant analysis of the new workers of 1973 in the National Longitudinal Survey of young men.

TABLE G-1

1973 EMPLOYMENT STATISTICS (PERCENTAGES)

	NONVETERANS(N=2999)	VETERANS(N=882)
	WHITES	
LFPR	90.7%	91.5%
UNEM	2.7%	3.3%
SPR(FT/PT)	7.1%/0.9%	6.3%/2.8%
	NON-SOUTH WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=2067)	VETERANS(N=621)
LFPR	90.7%	91.3%
UNEM	3.4%	4.4%
SPR(FT/PT)	7.5%/1.2%	7.2%/3.0%
	SOUTH WHITES	
	NONVETERANS(N=932)	VETERANS(N=261)
LFPR	90.7%	92.0%
UNEM	1.2%	1.0%
SPR(FT/PT)	6.0%/0.2%	4.2%/2.3%
21*-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-WHITES--*NO 20 YEAR-OLDS AVAILABLE		
	NONVETERANS(N=1414)	VETERANS(N=350)
LFPR	85.4%	87.4%
UNEM	4.1%	5.9%
SPR(FT/PT)	12.3%/1.3%	10.0%/4.6%
	BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=922)	VETERANS(N=220)
LFPR	91.3%	89.1%
UNEM	6.4%	8.2%
SPR(FT/PT)	4.6%/0.8%	6.8%/0.9%
	NON-SOUTH BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=294)	VETERANS(N=77)
LFPR	90.1%	84.4%
UNEM	12.5%	13.8%
SPR(FT/PT)	5.8%/1.0%	9.1%/1.3%
	SOUTH BLACKS	
	NONVETERANS(N=628)	VETERANS(N=143)
LFPR	91.9%	91.6%
UNEM	3.6%	5.3%
SPR(FT/PT)	4.0%/0.6%	5.6%/0.7%
21*-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-BLACKS--*NO 20 YEAR-OLDS AVAILABLE		
	NONVETERANS(N=502)	VETERANS(N=133)
LFPR	88.6%	85.7%
UNEM	8.5%	10.5%
SPR(FT/PT)	7.0%/1.2%	9.0%/0.8%

NOTES--(LFPR) = LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE
(UNEM) = UNEMPLOYMENT RATE
(SPR-FT) = SCHOOL PARTICIPATION RATE FULL-TIME
(SPR-PT) = SCHOOL PARTICIPATION RATE PART-TIME

TABLE G-2

1973 NEW WORKERS

WHITES (N=340)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION) NONVETERANS(N=254)		VETERANS(N=86)
AGE73	24.2(2.6)		25.2(3.3)***
GRCP3	14.3(2.3)***		13.2(1.7)
SOCIOEC6	111.6(17.8)***		105.0(17.1)
IQ	105.9(15.0)*		102.9(13.6)
PAYRATE3	4.45(3.02)		4.98(4.39)*=.2
CIVTRA3	NOT AVAIL		NOT AVAIL
CDRES3	0.3(0.5)		0.4(0.5)
SMSA3	2.0(0.8)		2.0(0.8)
FDUNC	43.1(24.4)***		35.2(21.8)
MARSTA3	3.0(2.4)		2.7(2.3)
OCC13	4.1(2.6)	***	4.9(2.9)
IND3	6.1(3.1)		5.6(3.0)
ROTTER	22.0(5.3)		21.5(4.7)

BLACKS (N=56)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION) NONVETERANS(N=43)	VETERANS(N=13)
AGE73	24.9(3.0)	24.3(3.2)
GRCP3	12.8(2.2)	12.1(1.4)
SOCIOEC6	91.1(25.9)	94.0(16.9)
IQ	85.5(15.1)	82.2(10.9)
PAYRATE3	3.11(0.99)	3.54(1.04)*=.189
CIVTRA3	NOT AVAIL	NOT AVAIL
CDRES3	0.7(0.5)	0.8(0.4)
SMSA3	1.5(0.8)	1.5(0.8)
FDUNC	20.3(19.9)*	14.1(8.2)
MARSTA3	3.9(2.4)	3.6(2.5)
OCC13	5.4(3.2)	6.5(3.6)
IND3	7.1(2.9)	6.7(3.7)
ROTTER	24.0(4.8)	23.5(4.8)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE
(NOT AVAIL) = DATA NOT AVAILABLE

TABLE G-3

1973 NEW WORKERS

NON-SOUTH WHITES (N=220)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)		
	NONVETERANS(N=166)		VETERANS(N=54)
AGE73	24.1(2.6)		25.4(3.4)***
GRCP3	14.5(2.2)***		13.1(1.6)
SOCIOEC6	114.7(15.3)***		102.7(15.0)
IQ	107.5(14.7)**		103.4(12.7)
PAYRATE3	4.62(3.20)		4.97(4.37)
CIVTRA3	NOT AVAIL		NOT AVAIL
CDRES3	N/A		N/A
SMSA3	1.9(0.7)		2.0(0.7)
FDUNC	42.5(24.6)***		30.9(19.8)
MARSTA3	3.1(2.4)		2.8(2.3)
OCC13	4.0(2.6)	***	5.1(2.7)
IND3	6.5(3.2)	*	5.7(3.1)
ROTTER	21.8(5.4)		21.5(4.8)

NON-SOUTH BLACKS (N=16)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)		
	NONVETERANS(N=13)		VETERANS(N=3)
AGE73	23.8(2.4)		27.0(5.3)*
GRCP3	13.1(1.7)		11.7(1.5)
SOCIOEC6	100.0(22.5)		111.3(9.6)
IQ	90.5(16.3)		78.0(8.0)
PAYRATE3	3.78(1.20)		4.13(1.14)
CIVTRA3	NOT AVAIL		NOT AVAIL
CDRES3	N/A		N/A
SMSA3	1.1(0.3)		1.0(0.0)
FDUNC	24.0(14.7)		22.3(8.5)
MARSTA3	3.8(2.4)		2.7(2.9)
OCC13	4.0(3.2)	**	8.0(3.0)
IND3	7.7(2.5)		6.0(4.4)
ROTTER	23.8(5.8)		25.3(3.2)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE
(NOT AVAIL) = DATA NOT AVAILABLE

TABLE G-4

1973 NEW WORKERS

SOUTH WHITES (N=120)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=88)	VETERANS(N=32)
AGE73	24.2(2.7)	24.8(3.1)
GRCP3	13.9(2.4)	13.4(1.9)
SOCIOEC6	105.9(20.6)	108.9(19.8)
IQ	102.8(15.3)	102.1(15.1)
PAYRATE3	4.13(2.64)	5.01(4.50)*=.188
CIVTRA3	NOT AVAIL	NOT AVAIL
CDRES3	N/A	N/A
SMSA3	2.2(0.9)	2.0(0.9)
FDUNC	44.2(24.3)	42.3(23.6)
MARSTA3	2.9(2.4)	2.5(2.3)
OCC13	4.3(2.6)	4.6(3.3)
IND3	5.5(3.0)	5.3(2.8)
ROTTER	22.4(5.3)	21.6(4.7)

SOUTH BLACKS (N=40)

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION)	
	NONVETERANS(N=30)	VETERANS(N=10)
AGE73	25.3(3.1)*	23.5(2.1)
GRCP3	12.6(2.4)	12.2(1.4)
SOCIOEC6	87.2(26.6)	88.8(15.1)
IQ	83.3(14.2)	83.4(11.7)
PAYRATE3	2.83(0.73)	3.36(1.00)*
CIVTRA3	NOT AVAIL	NOT AVAIL
CDRES3	N/A	N/A
SMSA3	1.6(0.9)	1.6(0.8)
FDUNC	22.6(22.1)*	11.6(6.6)
MARSTA3	3.9(2.4)	3.9(2.5)
OCC13	6.0(3.1)	6.1(3.8)
IND3	6.8(3.1)	6.9(3.7)
ROTTER	24.1(4.5)	23.0(5.2)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE
(NOT AVAIL) = DATA NOT AVAILABLE

TABLE G-5

1973 NEW WORKERS

21*-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-WHITES (N=212)-*NO 20 YEAR-OLDS

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION) NONVETERANS(N=164)		VETERANS(N=48)
AGE73	22.5(1.1)		22.5(0.9)
GRCP3	14.2(2.0)***		12.8(1.2)
SOCIOEC6	111.8(17.4)***		103.1(14.5)
IQ	107.0(14.3)*		103.0(13.3)
PAYRATE3	3.77(1.68)		4.32(4.44)*=.196
CIVTRA3	NOT AVAIL		NOT AVAIL
CDRES3	0.4(0.5)		0.4(0.5)
SMSA3	2.0(0.8)		2.1(0.8)
FDUNC	43.3(24.4)***		33.9(20.9)
MARSTA3	3.5(2.5)		3.6(2.5)
OCC13	4.3(2.7)	***	5.4(2.9)
IND3	6.0(3.0)	***	4.9(2.6)
ROTTER	22.0(5.3)		21.9(4.7)

21*-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP-BLACKS (N=32)-*NO 20 YEAR-OLDS

	MEAN (STANDARD DEVIATION) NONVETERANS(N=22)		VETERANS(N=10)
AGE73	22.5(1.0)		22.7(1.1)
GRCP3	13.6(1.8)**		12.2(1.4)
SOCIOEC6	91.9(26.0)		90.0(15.6)
IQ	89.9(13.5)*		81.2(11.9)
PAYRATE3	3.20(1.11)		3.40(1.04)
CIVTRA3	NOT AVAIL		NOT AVAIL
CDRES3	0.6(0.5)	*	0.9(0.3)
SMSA3	1.4(0.7)		1.6(0.8)
FDUNC	22.5(20.8)		12.8(6.7)
MARSTA3	4.5(2.2)		4.0(2.6)
OCC13	4.0(2.6)	***	7.1(3.6)
IND3	7.5(3.1)		6.2(3.5)
ROTTER	23.4(4.7)		23.7(4.8)

NOTES--(*) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .1 LEVEL
(**) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 LEVEL
(***) = SIGNIFICANCE AT .01 LEVEL
(N/A) = NOT APPLICABLE
(NOT AVAIL) = DATA NOT AVAILABLE

TABLE G-6

1973--OCCUPATIONS OF NEW FULL-TIME WORKERS (PERCENTAGES)

	ALL WORKERS				NON-SOUTH				SOUTH				20-24 AGE			
	WNV-(N=505)				WNV-(N=322)				WNV-(N=183)				WNV-(N=316)			
	WV-(N=236)				WV-(N=158)				WV-(N=78)				WV-(N=122)			
	BNV-(N=174)				BNV-(N=41)				BNV-(N=133)				BNV-(N=101)			
	BV-(N=68)				BV-(N=14)				BV-(N=54)				BV-(N=51)			
	W N V$	W V	B N V	B V	W N V$	W V	B N V	B V	W N V	W V	B N V%	B V	W N V$	W V	B N V	B V
PROFESSIONAL, TECHNICAL, AND KINDRED---	17	13	10	3	20	11	10	0	11	18	11	4	14	8	12	2
MANAGERS, OFFICIALS, AND PROPRIETORS--	12	9	3	3	11	10	10	0	13	8	1	4	11	6	2	4
CLERICAL AND KINDRED---	8	6	8	10	9	6	12	0	6	5	7	13	8	6	11	10
SALES WORKERS---	7	3	2	6	8	3	5	7	7	4	1	6	6	2	2	6
CRAFTSMEN, FOREMEN, AND KINDRED---	21	29	14	18	19	27	15	36	25	35	14	13	21	34	13	18
OPERATIVES AND KINDRED---	21	21	31	32	21	23	29	36	21	17	32	32	24	24	33	31
PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD WORK-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SERVICE WORKERS, EXCEPT PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD------	4	5	7	12	4	6	5	14	5	1	8	11	5	4	5	10
FARMERS AND FARM MANAGERS-	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
FARM LABORERS AND FOREMEN---	2	1	3	0	2	1	0	0	3	1	4	0	2	2	3	0
LABORERS, EXCEPT FARM AND MINE------	7	12	22	16	7	13	15	7	9	12	24	19	8	15	20	20

NOTES--

(1) WNV=WHITE NONVETERAN, WV=WHITE VETERAN

(2) BNV=BLACK NONVETERAN, BV=BLACK VETERAN

(3) EACH VET VS. NONVET SAMPLE TESTED FOR SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BY CHI-SQUARE TEST: % = .1 LEVEL, & = .05 LEVEL, $ = .01 LEVEL

TABLE G-7

1973--INDUSTRIES OF NEW FULL-TIME WORKERS (PERCENTAGES)

	ALL WORKERS WNV-(N=504) WV-(N=236) BNV-(N=174) BV-(N=67)				NON-SOUTH WNV-(N=321) WV-(N=158) BNV-(N=41) BV-(N=13)				SOUTH WNV-(N=183) WV-(N=78) BNV-(N=133) BV-(N=54)				20-24 AGE WNV-(N=315) WV-(N=123) BNV-(N=101) BV-(N=51)			
	W N V	W V	B N V&	B V	W N V	W V%	B N V	B V	W N V	W V%	B N V&	B V	W N V	W V	B N V&	B V
AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY, AND FISHERIES-	5	2	6	0	4	2	0	0	6	3	8	0	5	3	6	0
MINING----	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	1	0	0	1	1	0	0
CONSTRUCT-	18	18	15	13	13	16	12	15	26	22	16	13	16	21	11	14
MANUFACT--	24	31	30	31	26	28	34	39	21	39	29	30	26	34	33	37
TRANSPORTATION, COMMUNICATION, AND PUBLIC UTILITIES-	5	5	10	8	5	7	7	8	6	3	11	7	6	6	10	6
WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE-----	19	17	13	15	18	20	15	0	20	12	12	19	20	16	12	14
FINANCE, INSURANCE, AND REAL ESTATE----	6	3	3	5	8	2	2	8	3	6	4	4	5	2	4	4
BUSINESS AND REPAIR SERVICES--	4	6	8	8	5	6	22	23	3	5	3	4	5	4	9	8
PERSONAL SERVICES--	2	1	2	2	2	1	0	0	2	1	3	2	1	2	1	0
ENTERTAINMENT AND RECREATION SERVICES--	1	1	2	0	2	1	0	0	1	1	2	0	1	2	0	0
PROFESSIONAL, AND RELATED SERVICES--	13	8	10	6	14	8	7	8	10	8	11	6	12	5	12	2
PUBLIC ADMINI-STRATION--	4	6	2	13	4	9	0	0	3	0	3	17	3	5	3	16

NOTES--

(1) WNV=WHITE NONVETERAN, WV=WHITE VETERAN

(2) BNV=BLACK NONVETERAN, BV=BLACK VETERAN

(3) EACH VET VS. NONVET SAMPLE TESTED FOR SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BY CHI-SQUARE TEST: % = .1 LEVEL, & = .05 LEVEL, $ = .01 LEVEL

APPENDIX H

GRAPHICAL PRESENTATIONS OF DATA 1966-1973

The following figures show the plots obtained for the labor force variables of labor force participation rate, unemployment rate, school participation rate full-time, and school participation rate part-time over the years of the National Longitudinal Survey of young men 1966 to 1973. The labor force data are plotted in Figures H-1 to H-16. Additionally, five variables (AGE, GRCP, SOCIOEC6, IQ, PAYRATE) from discriminant analysis are plotted over the NLS years 1966 to 1973. The new worker data are plotted in Figures H-17 to H-36.

FIGURE H-1
OVERALL GROUP

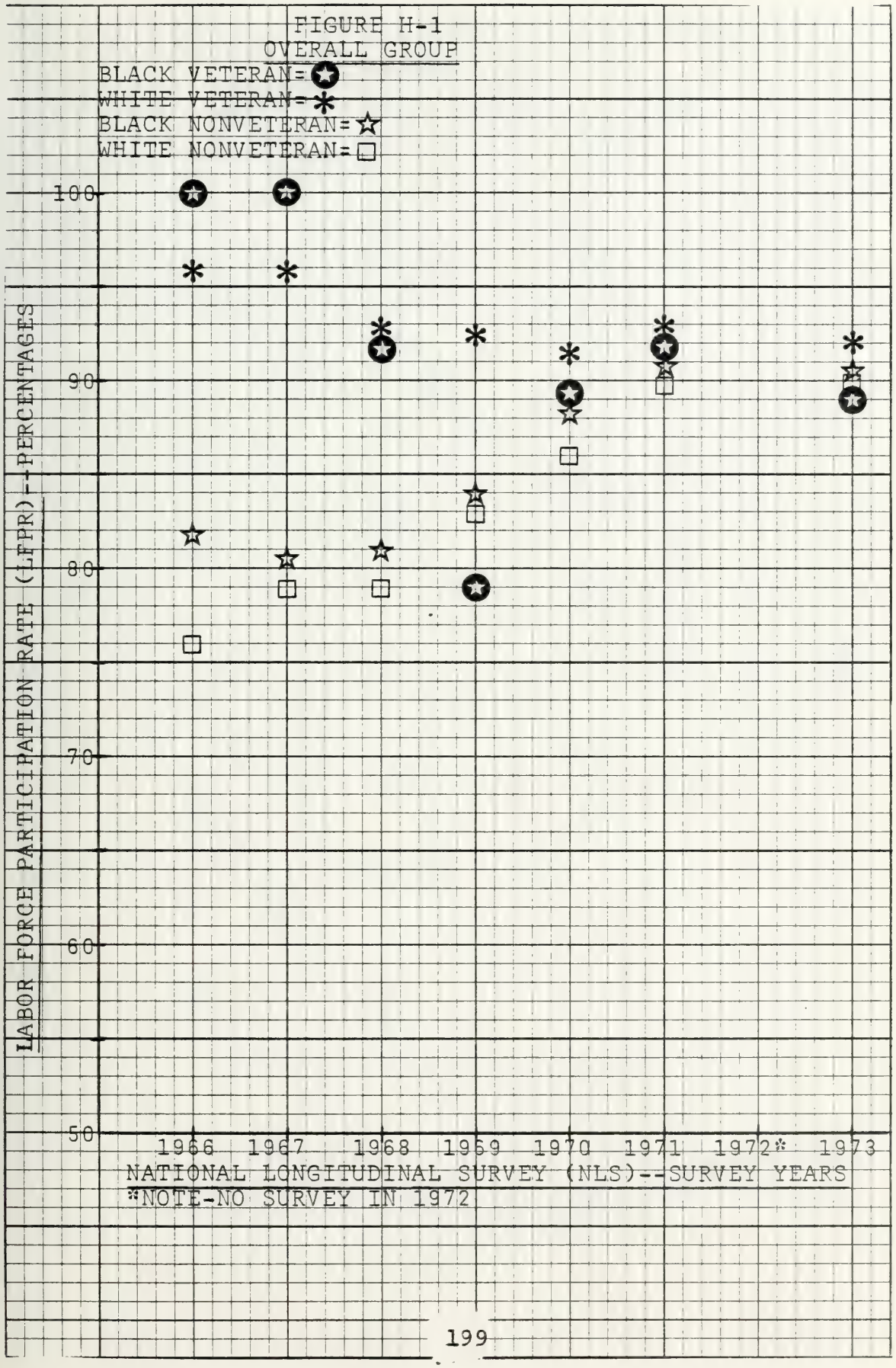


FIGURE H-2
OVERALL GROUP

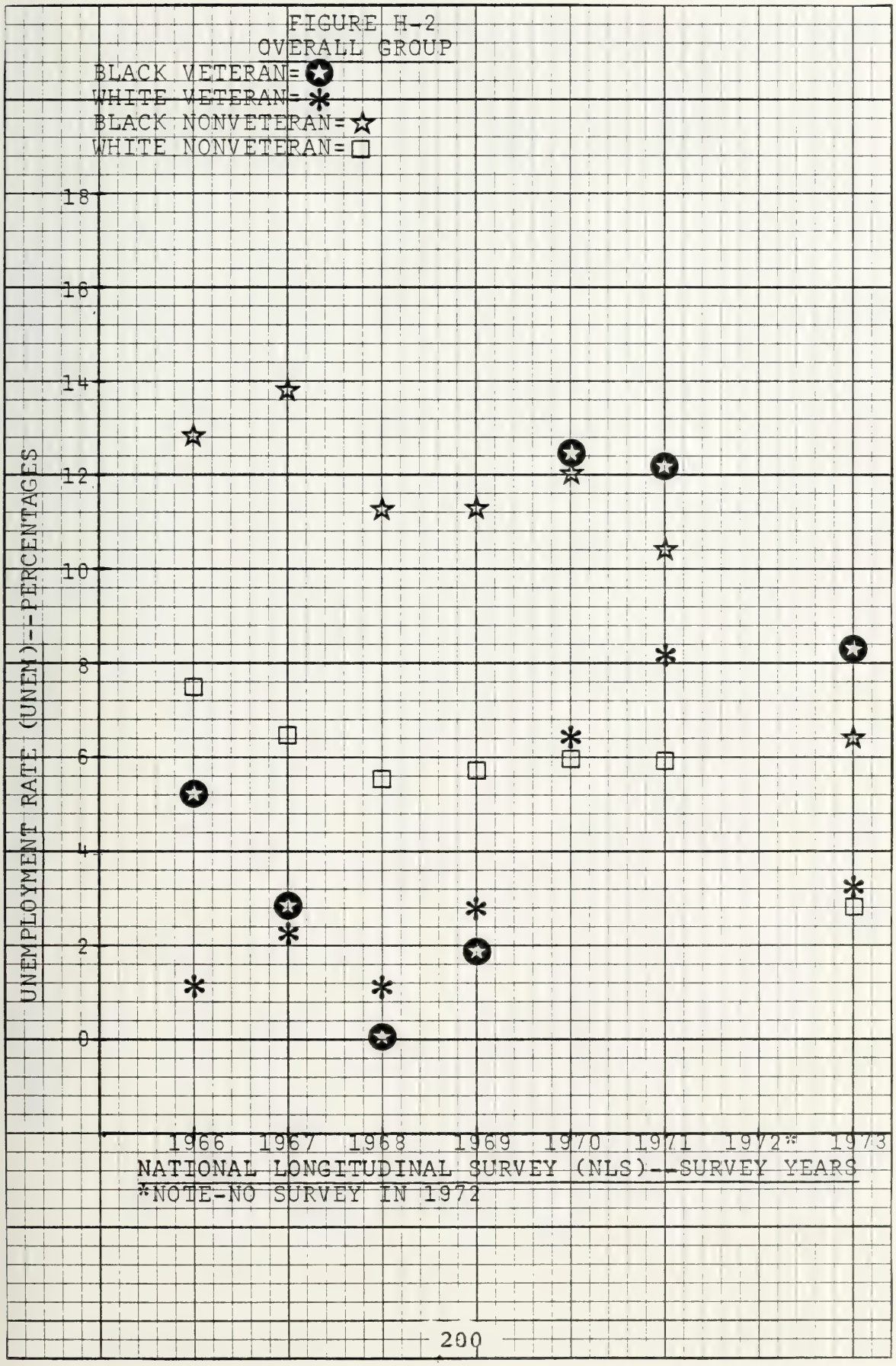


FIGURE H-3
OVERALL GROUP

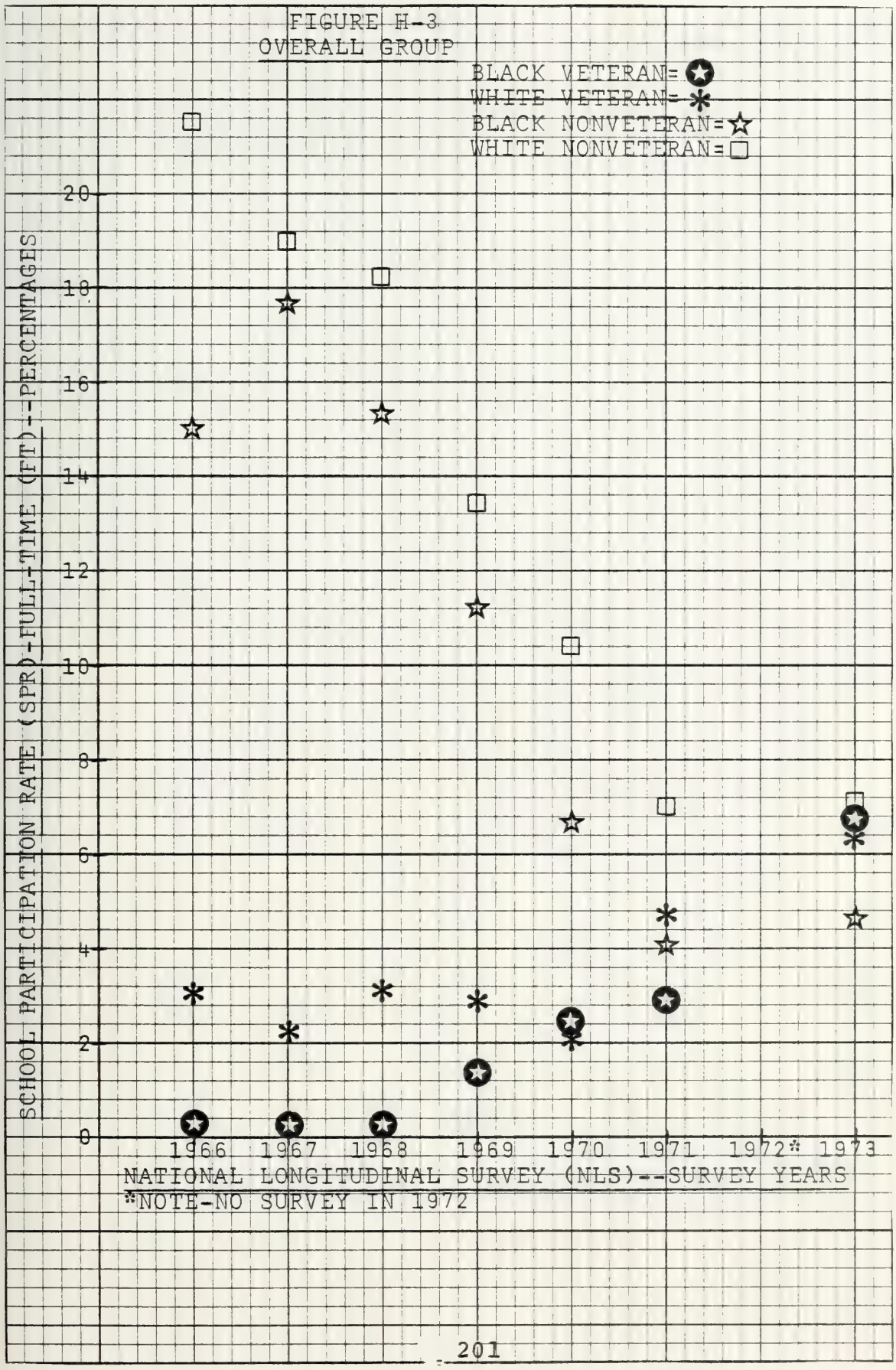


FIGURE H-4
OVERALL GROUP

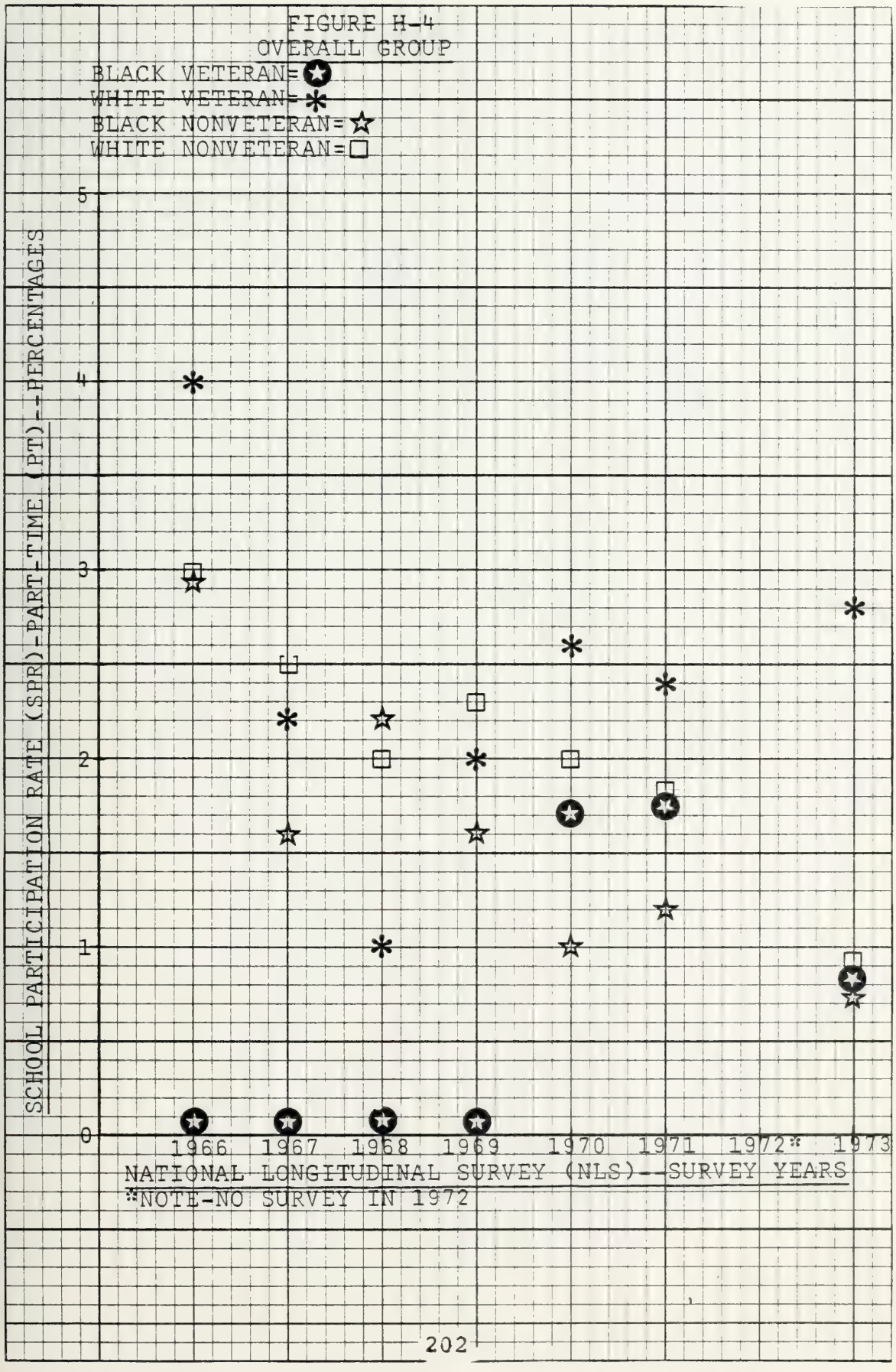


FIGURE H-5
NONSOUTH GROUP

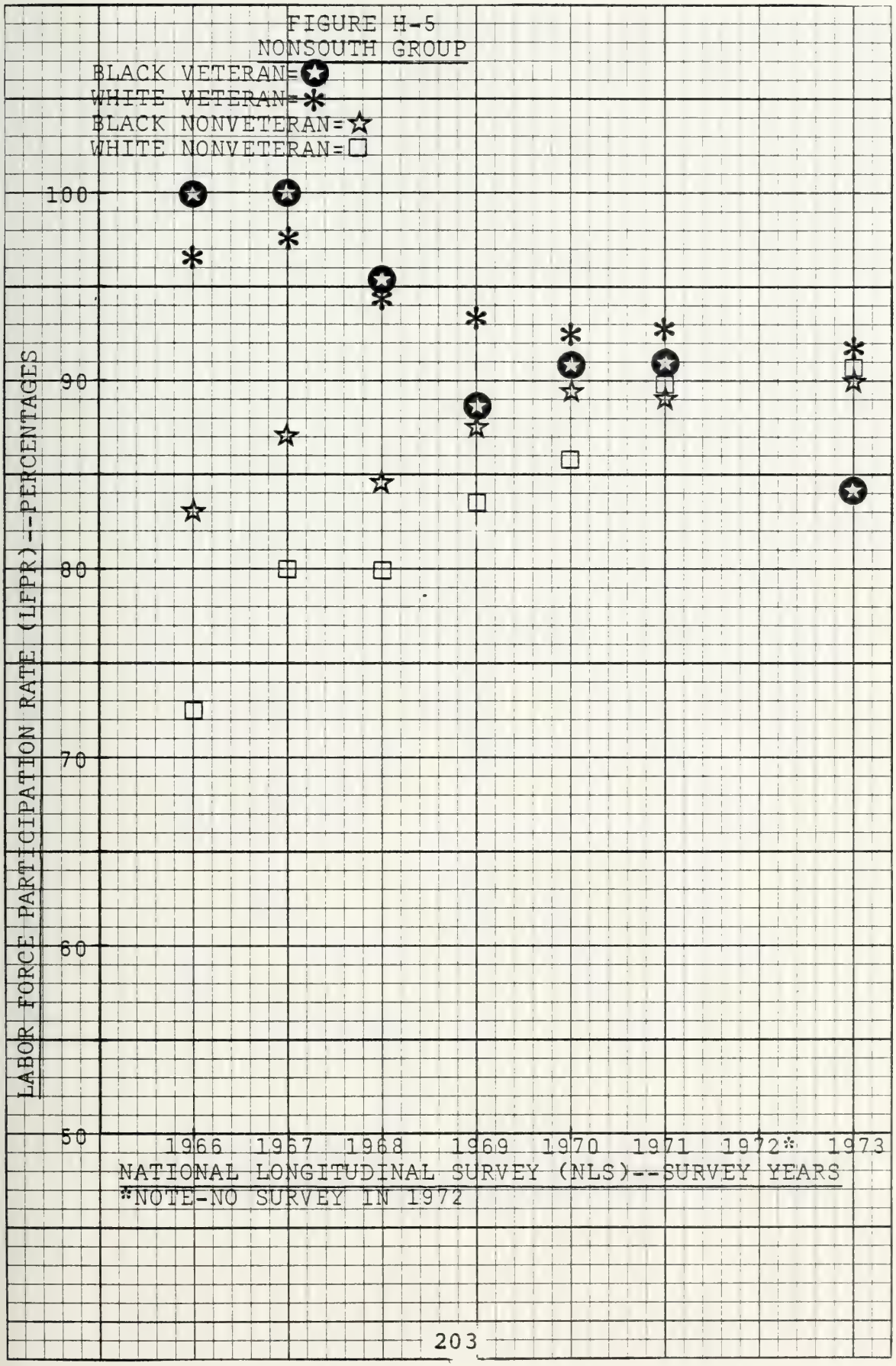
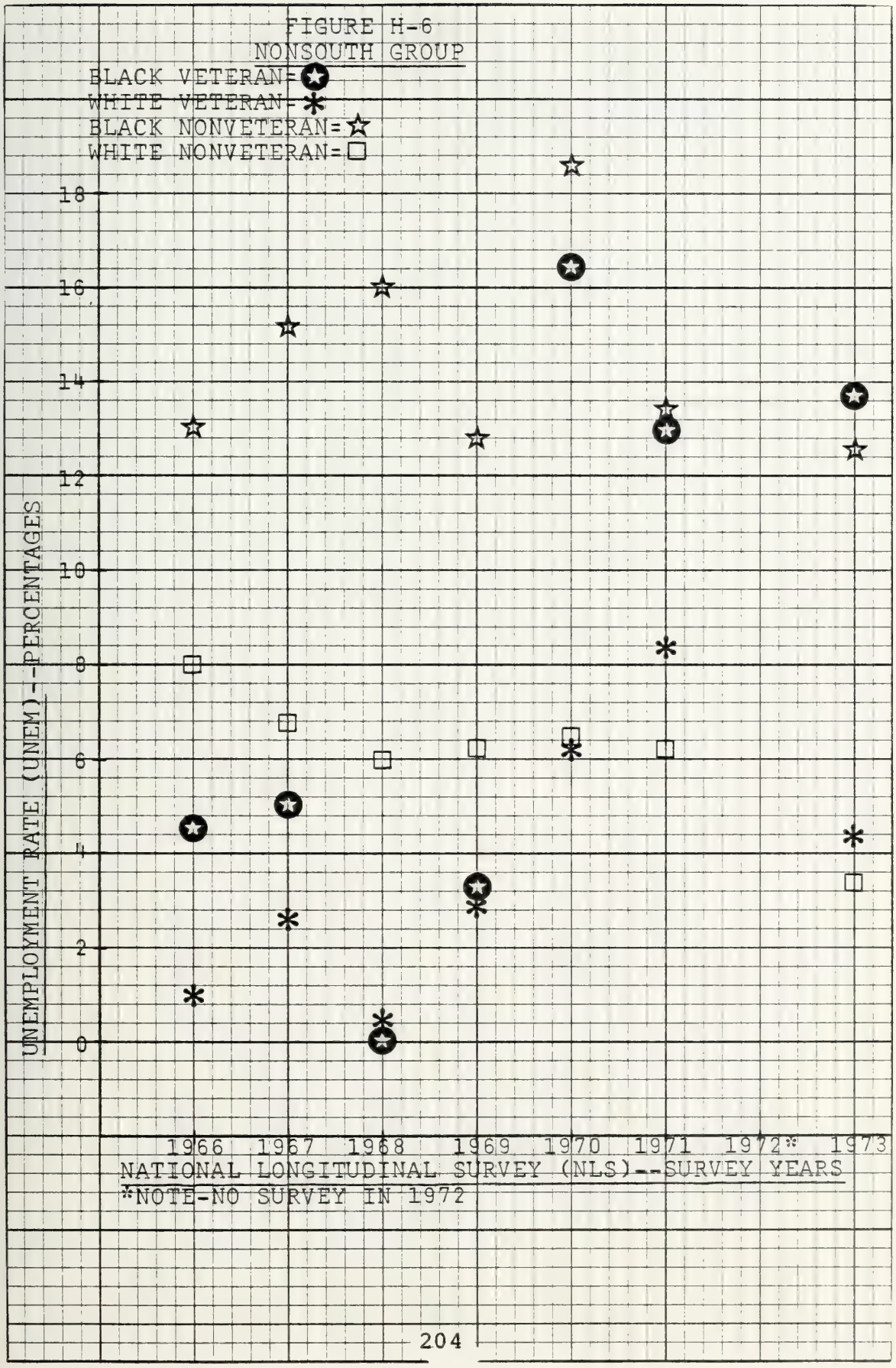


FIGURE H-6
NONSOUTH GROUP



*NOTE-NO SURVEY IN 1972

FIGURE H-7
NONSOUTH GROUP

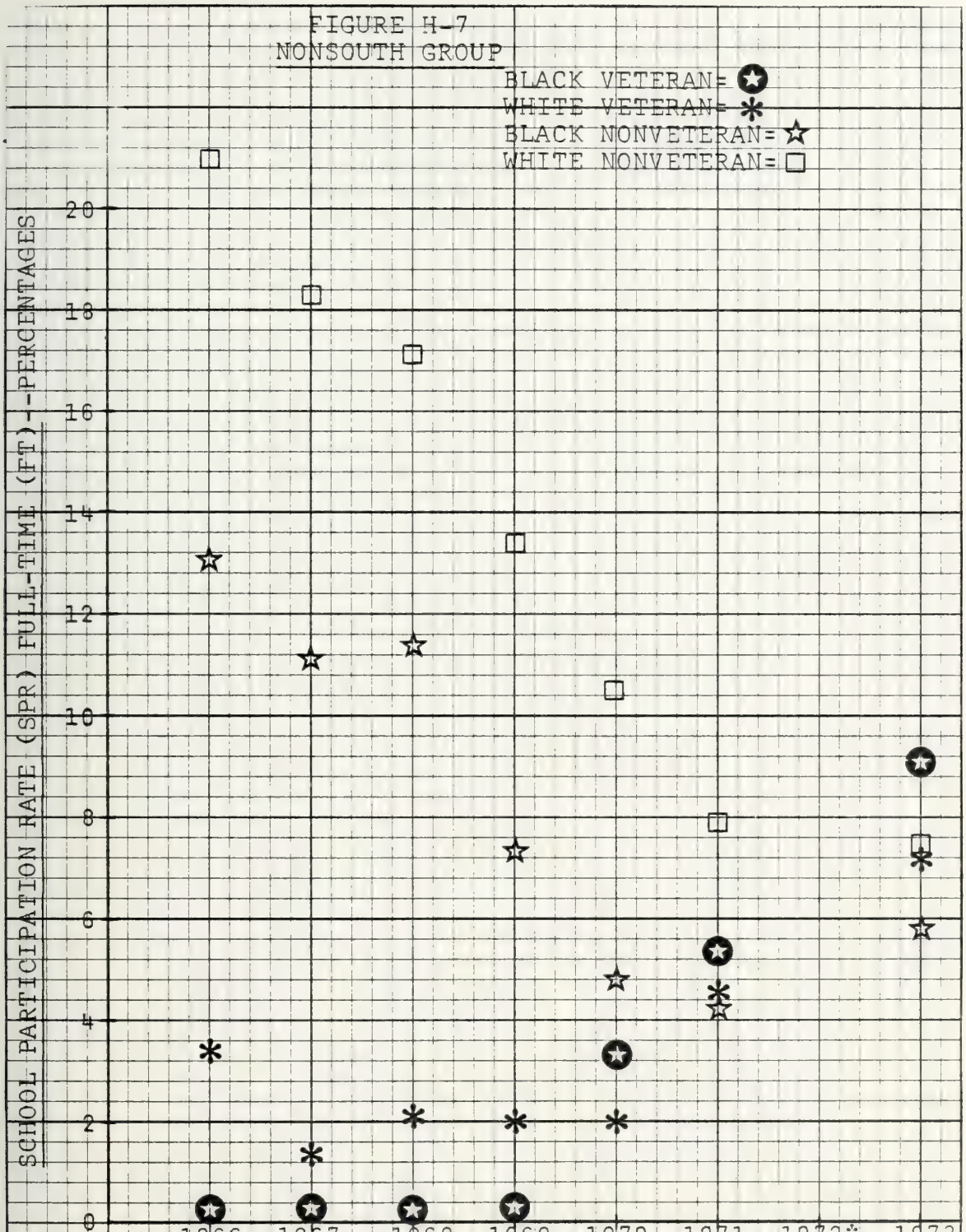


FIGURE H-8
NONSOUTH GROUP

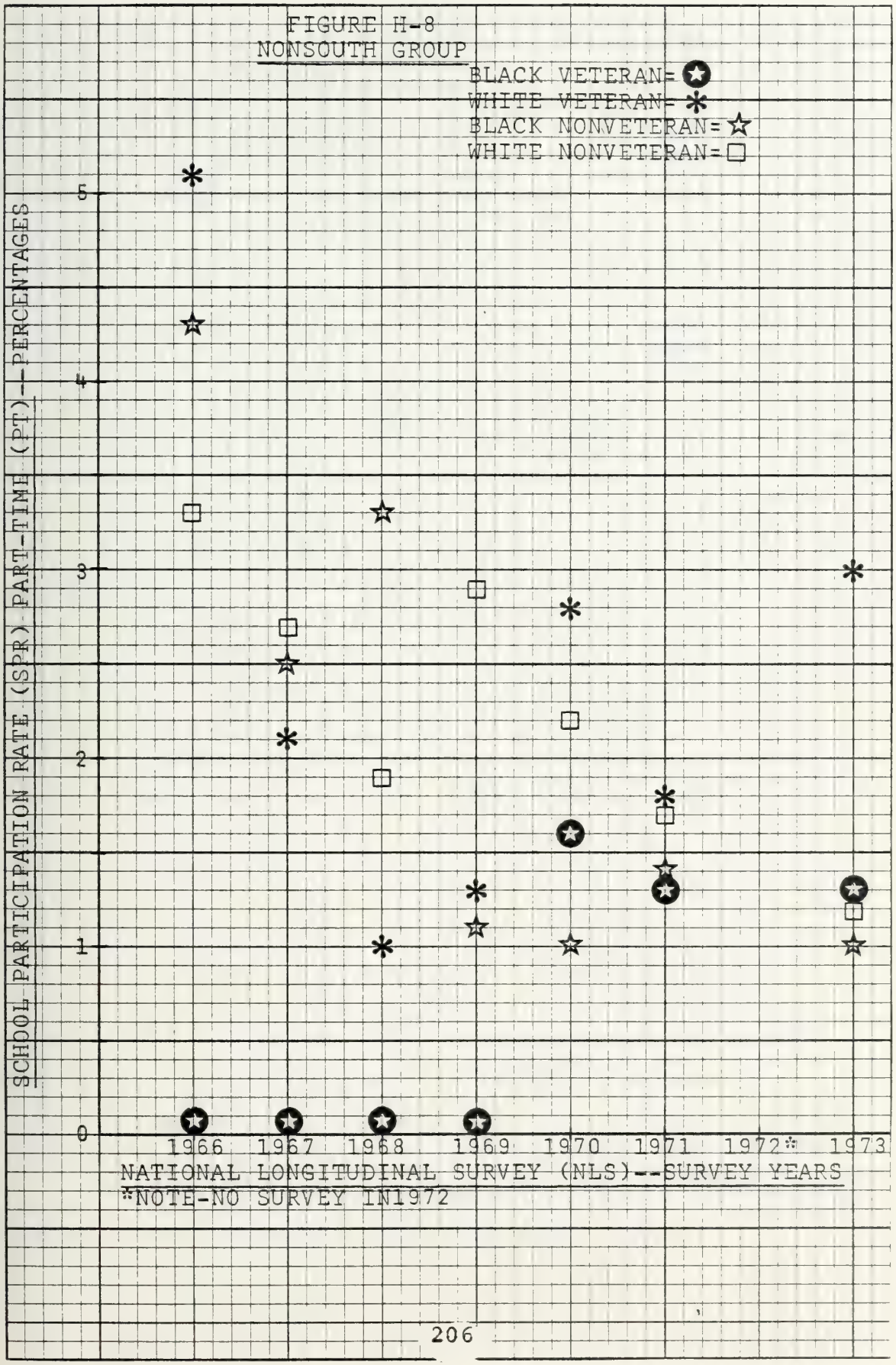


FIGURE H-9
SOUTH GROUP

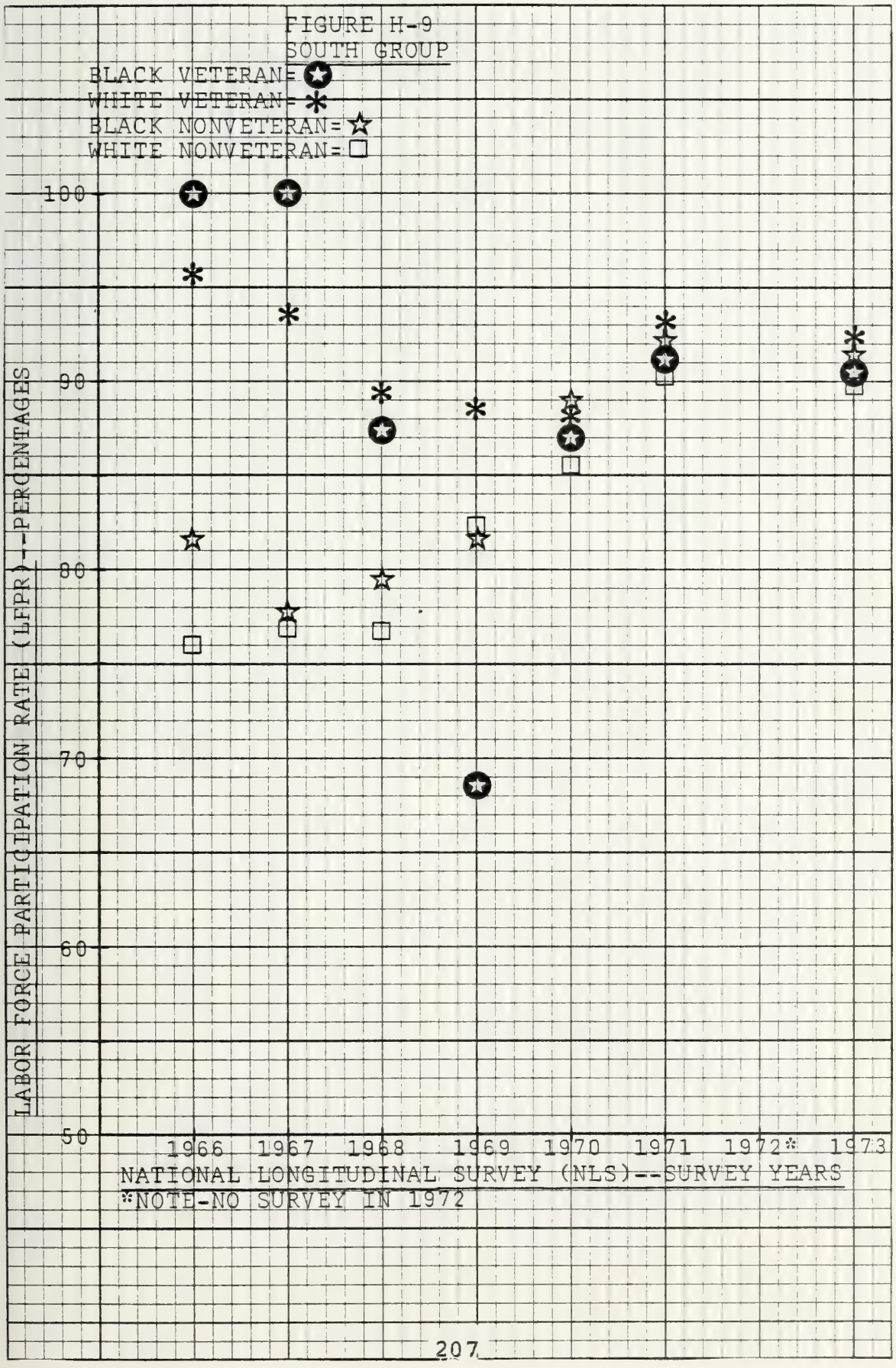


FIGURE H-10
SOUTH GROUP

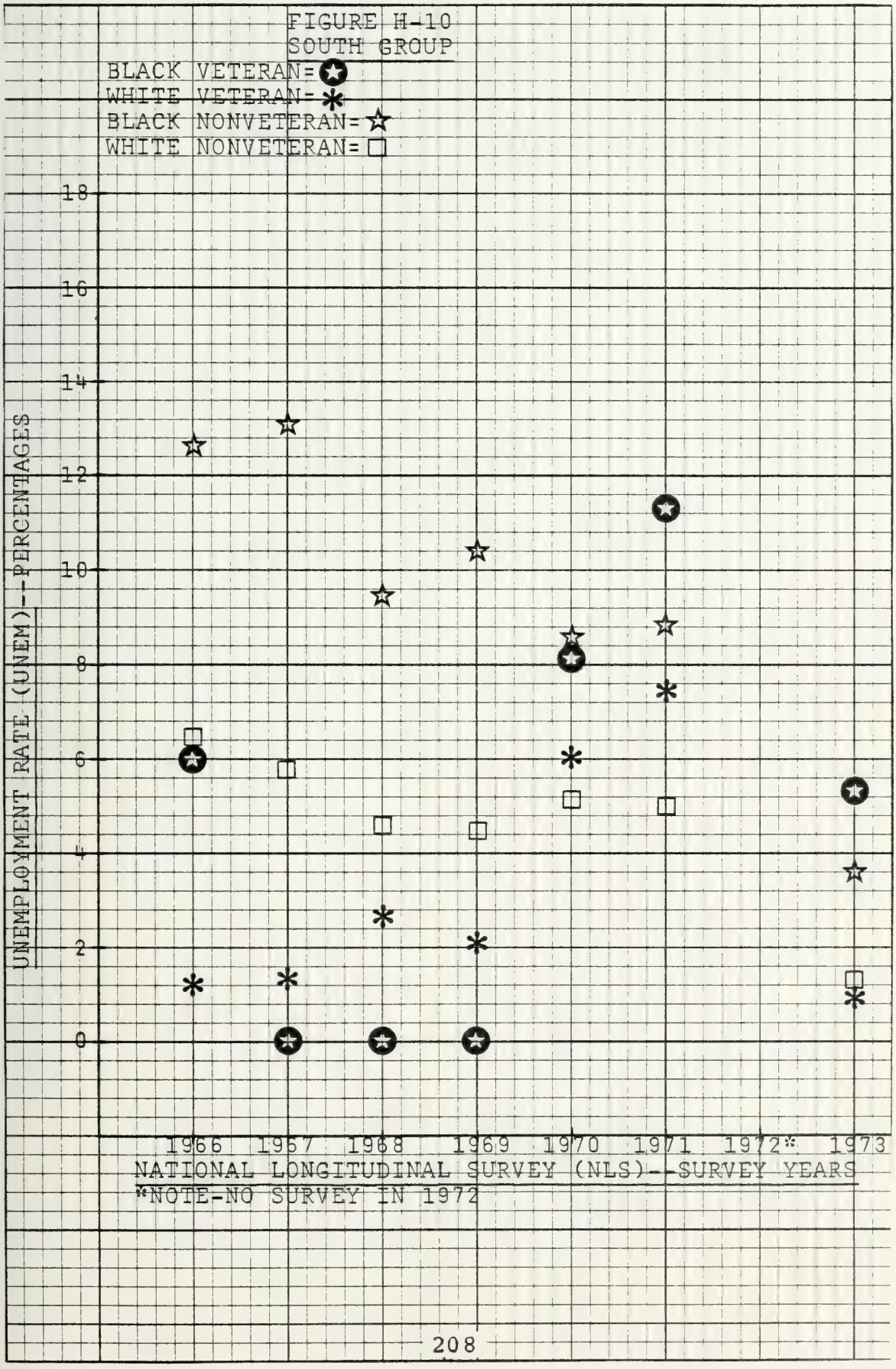


FIGURE H-11
SOUTH GROUP

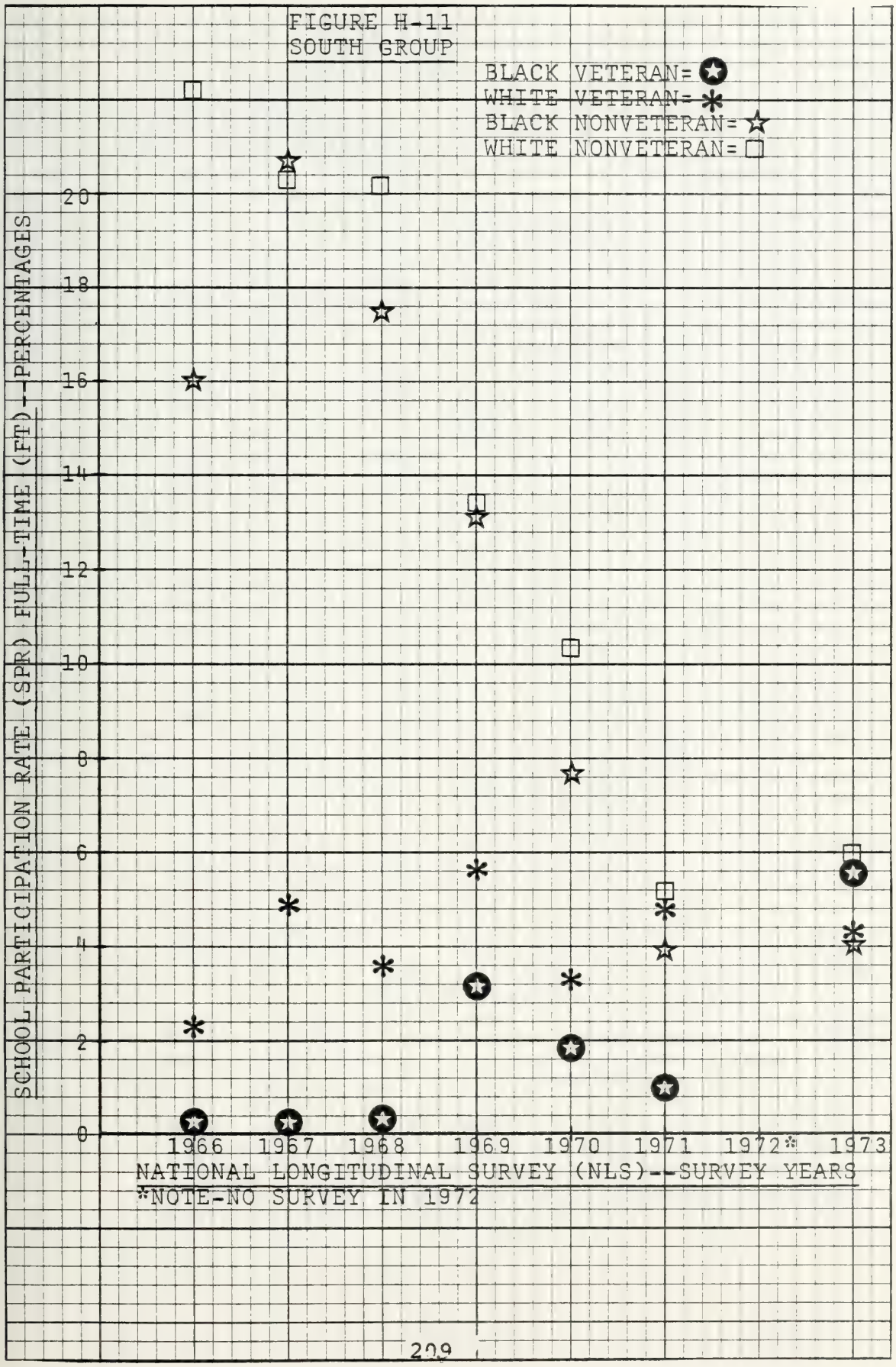


FIGURE H-12
SOUTH GROUP

BLACK VETERAN=✪
WHITE VETERAN=*
BLACK NONVETERAN=☆
WHITE NONVETERAN=□

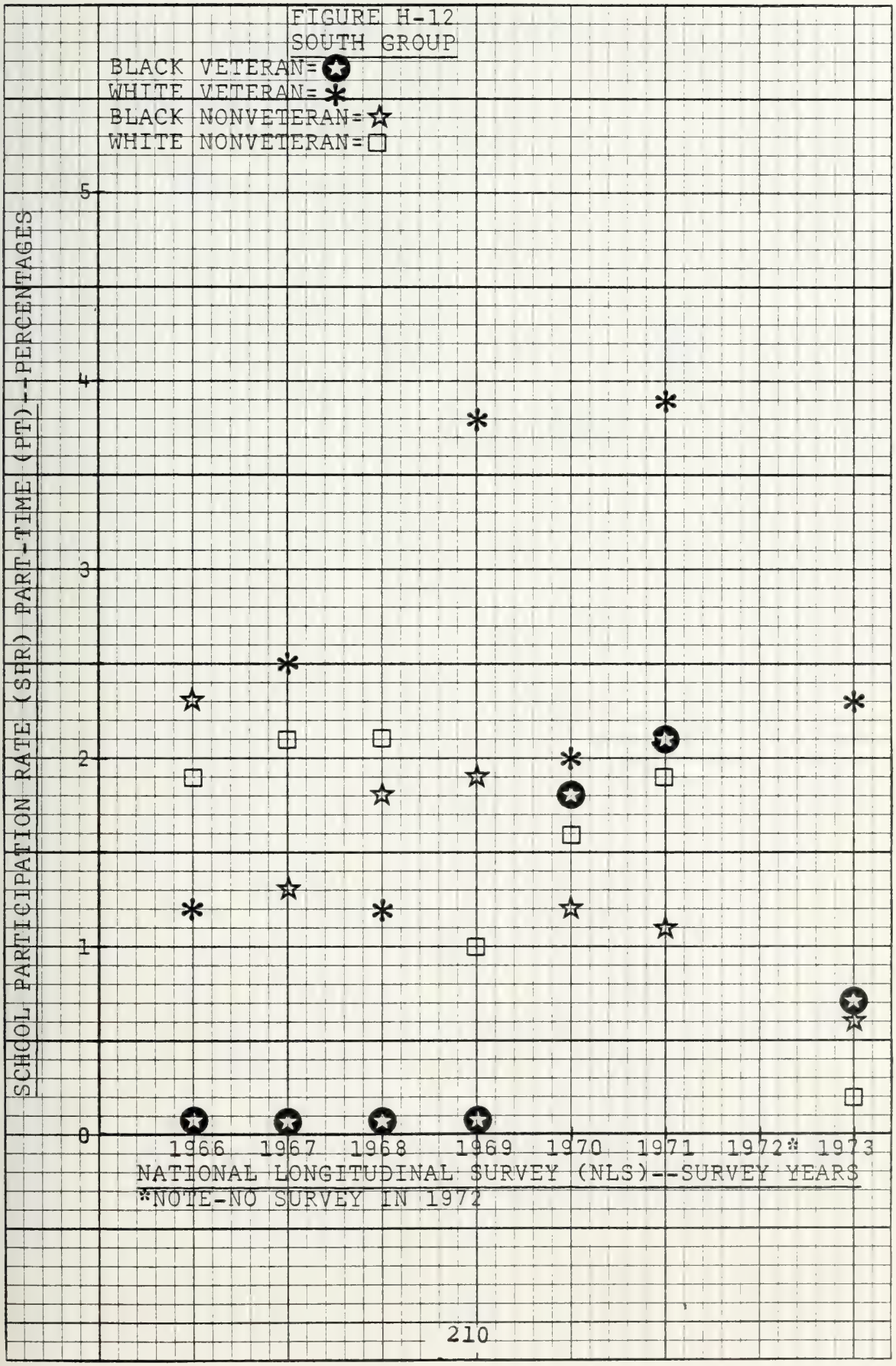


FIGURE H-13

20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP

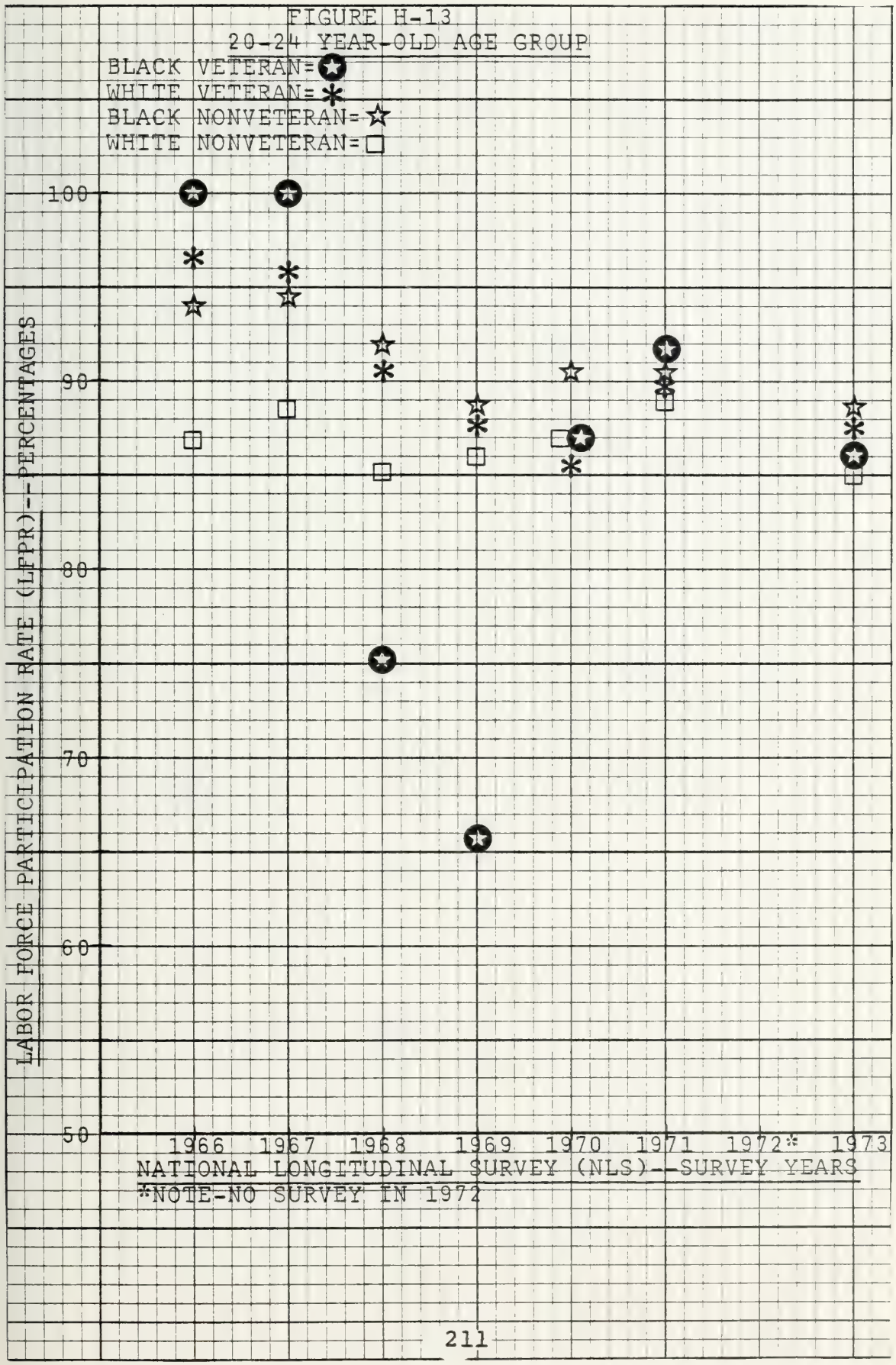


FIGURE H-14

20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP

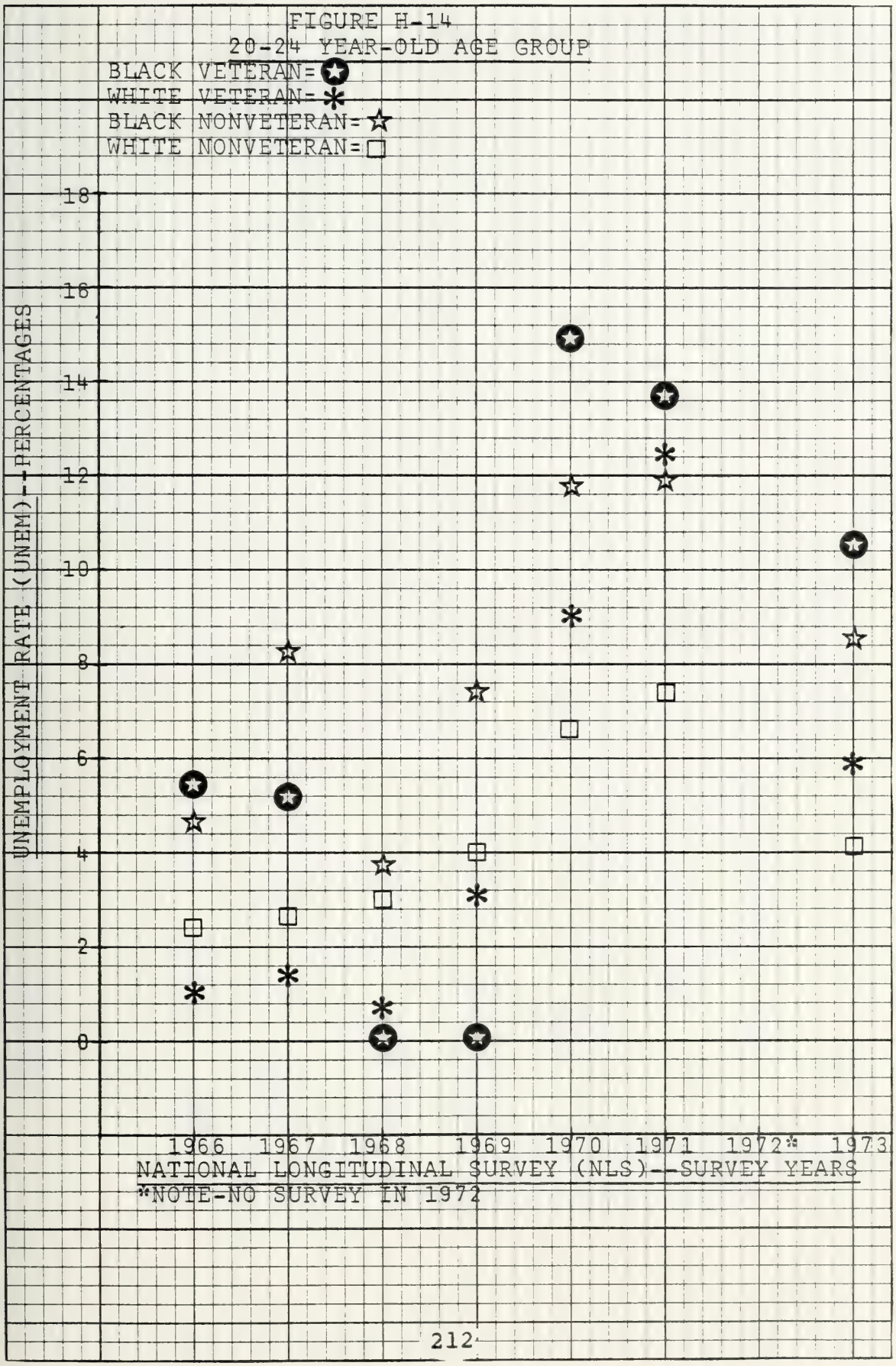


FIGURE H-15
20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP

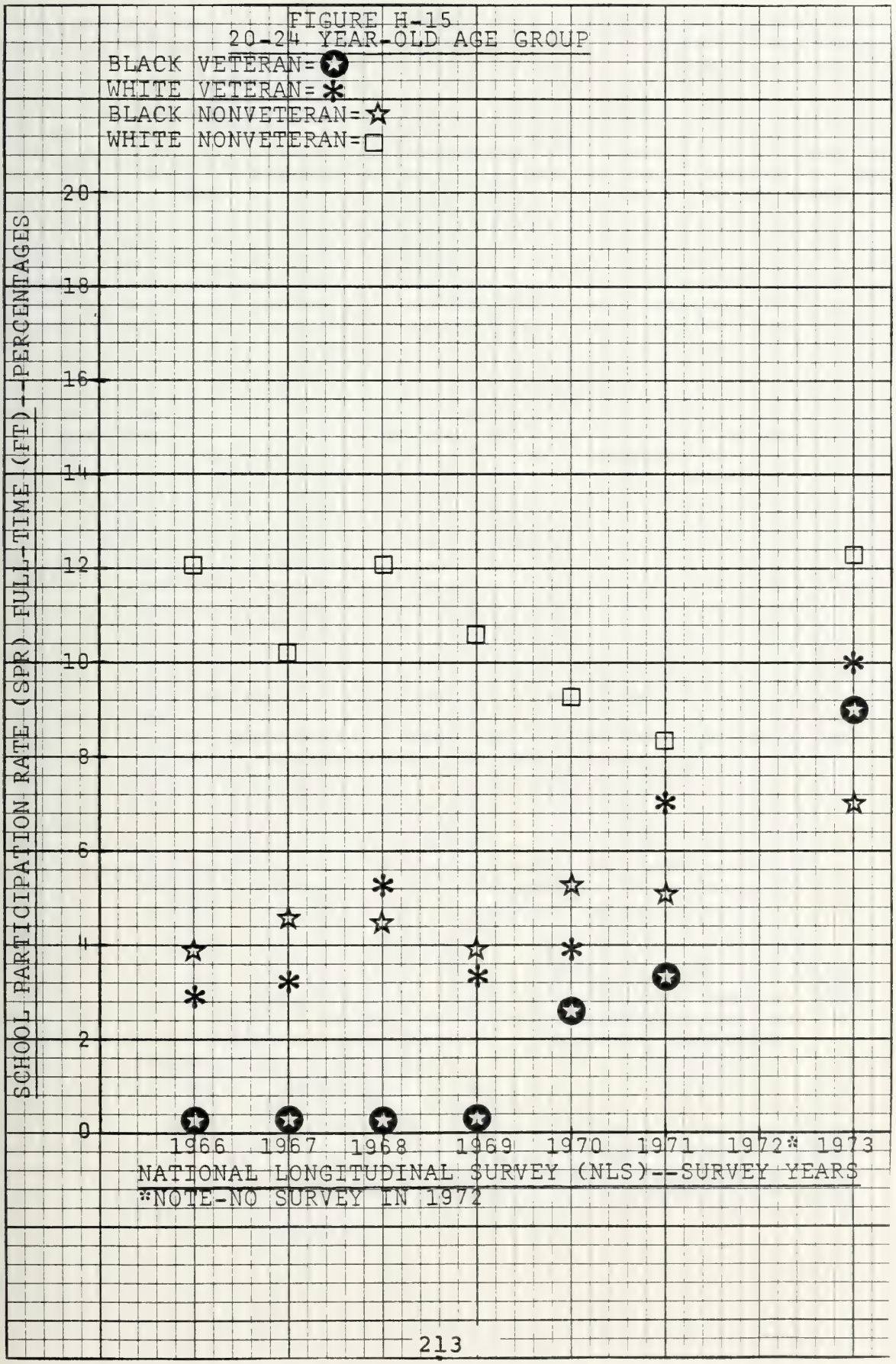


FIGURE H-16

20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP

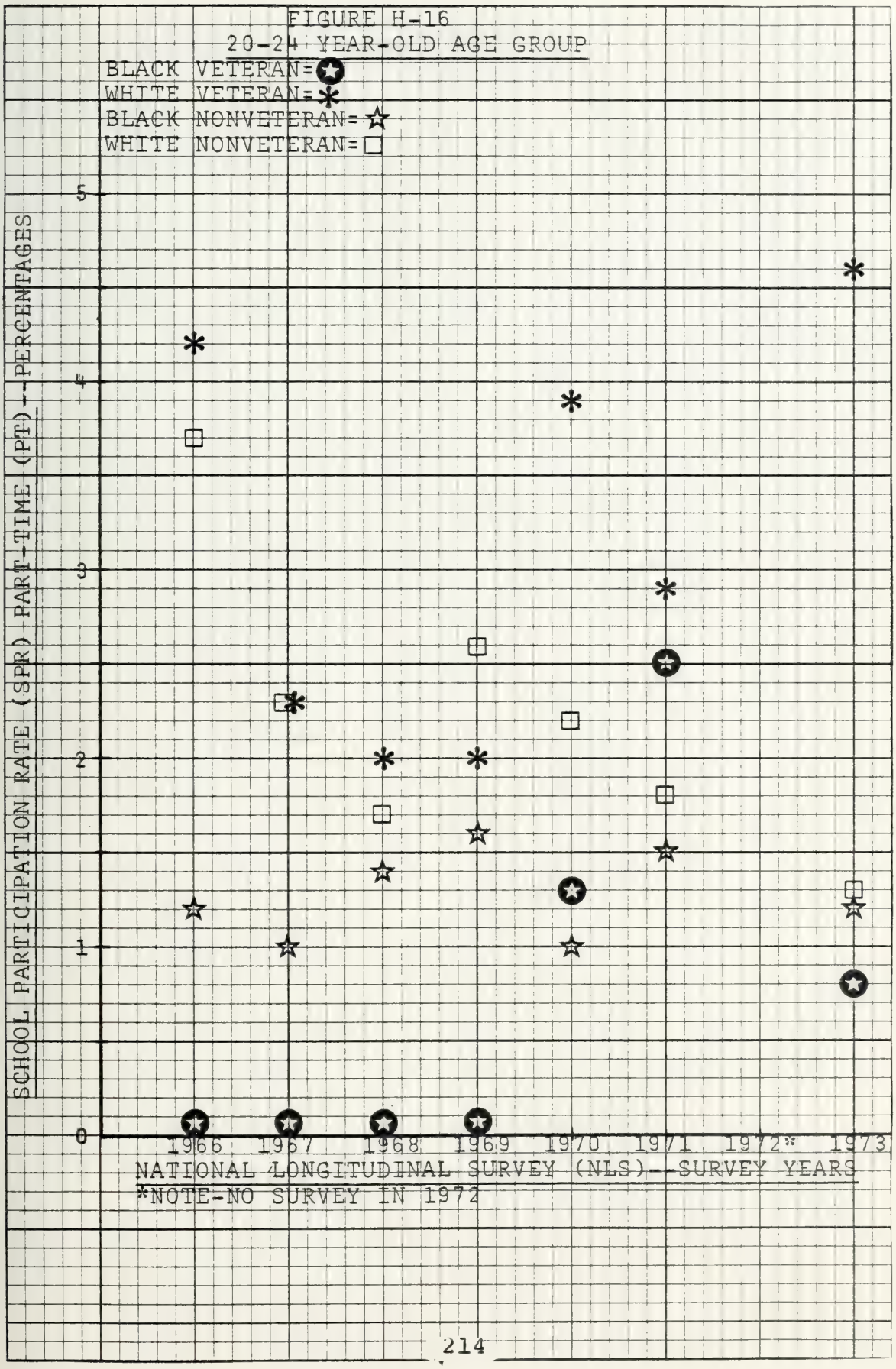


FIGURE H-17

NEW WORKERS--OVERALL GROUP

BLACK VETERAN=✪
WHITE VETERAN=*
BLACK NONVETERAN=☆
WHITE NONVETERAN=□

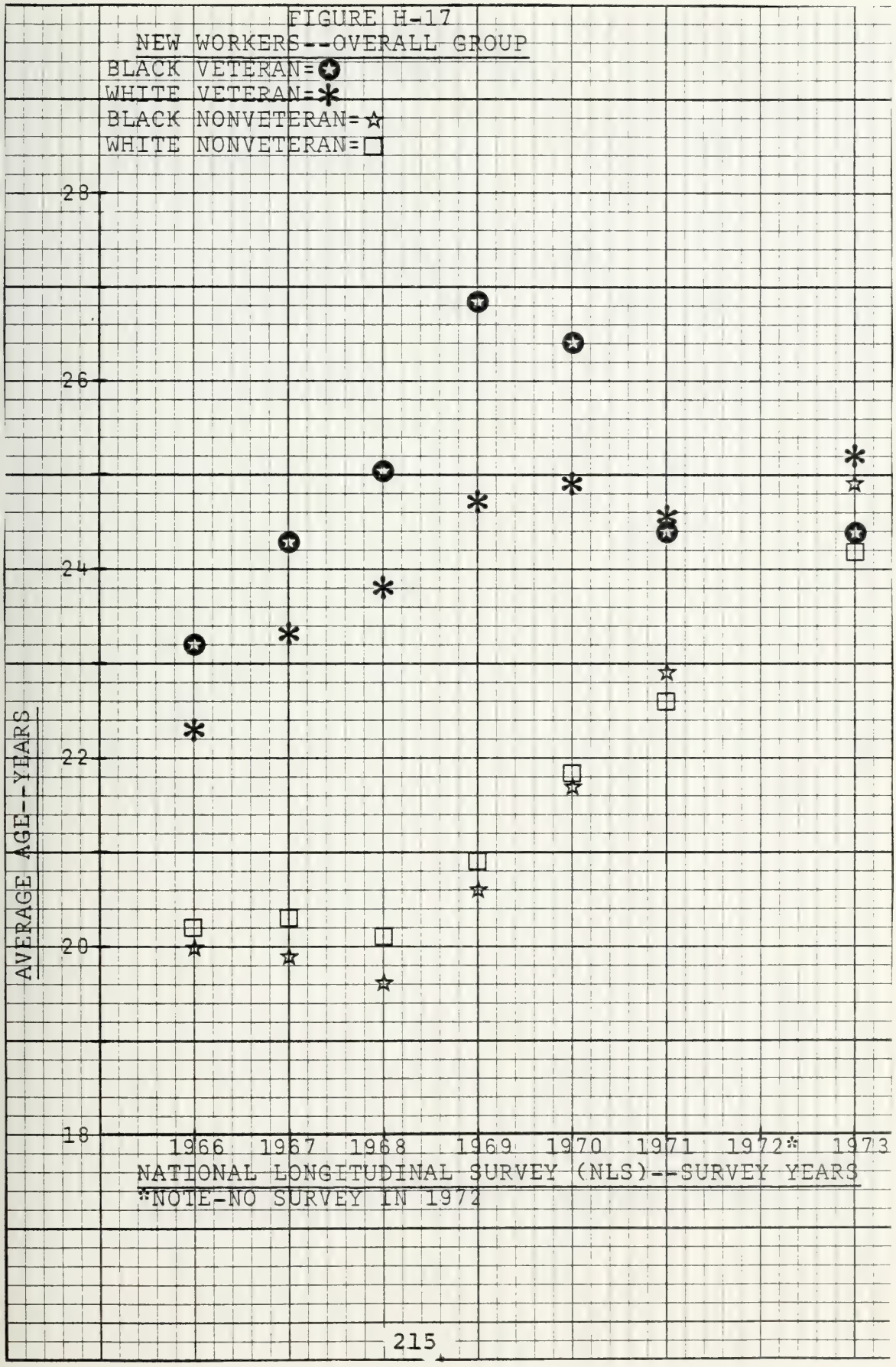


FIGURE H-18

NEW WORKERS--OVERALL GROUP

BLACK VETERAN=✪

WHITE VETERAN=✱

BLACK NONVETERAN=☆

WHITE NONVETERAN=□

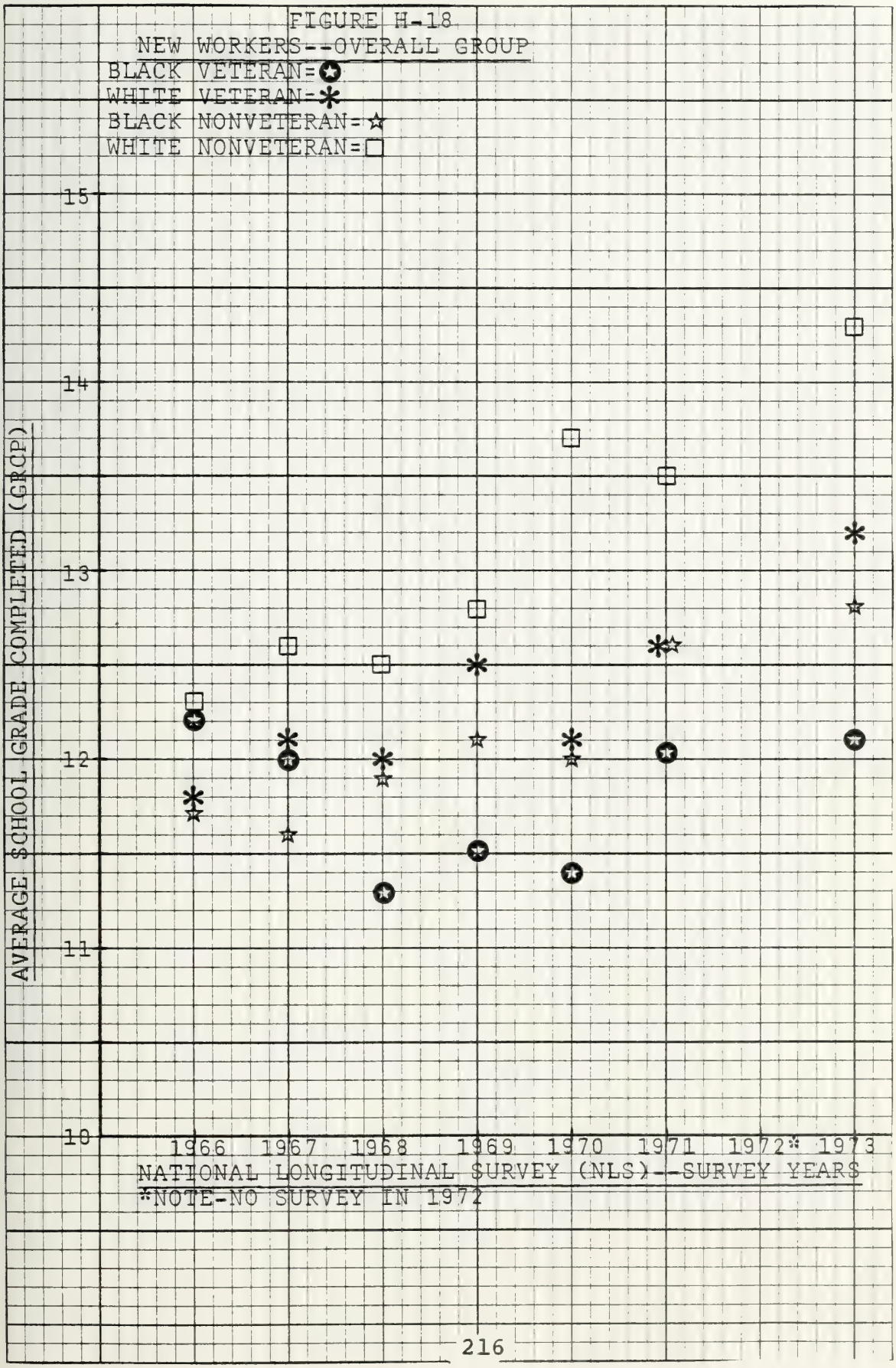


FIGURE H-19

NEW WORKERS--OVERALL GROUP

BLACK VETERAN=✪

WHITE VETERAN=✱

BLACK NONVETERAN=☆

WHITE NONVETERAN=□

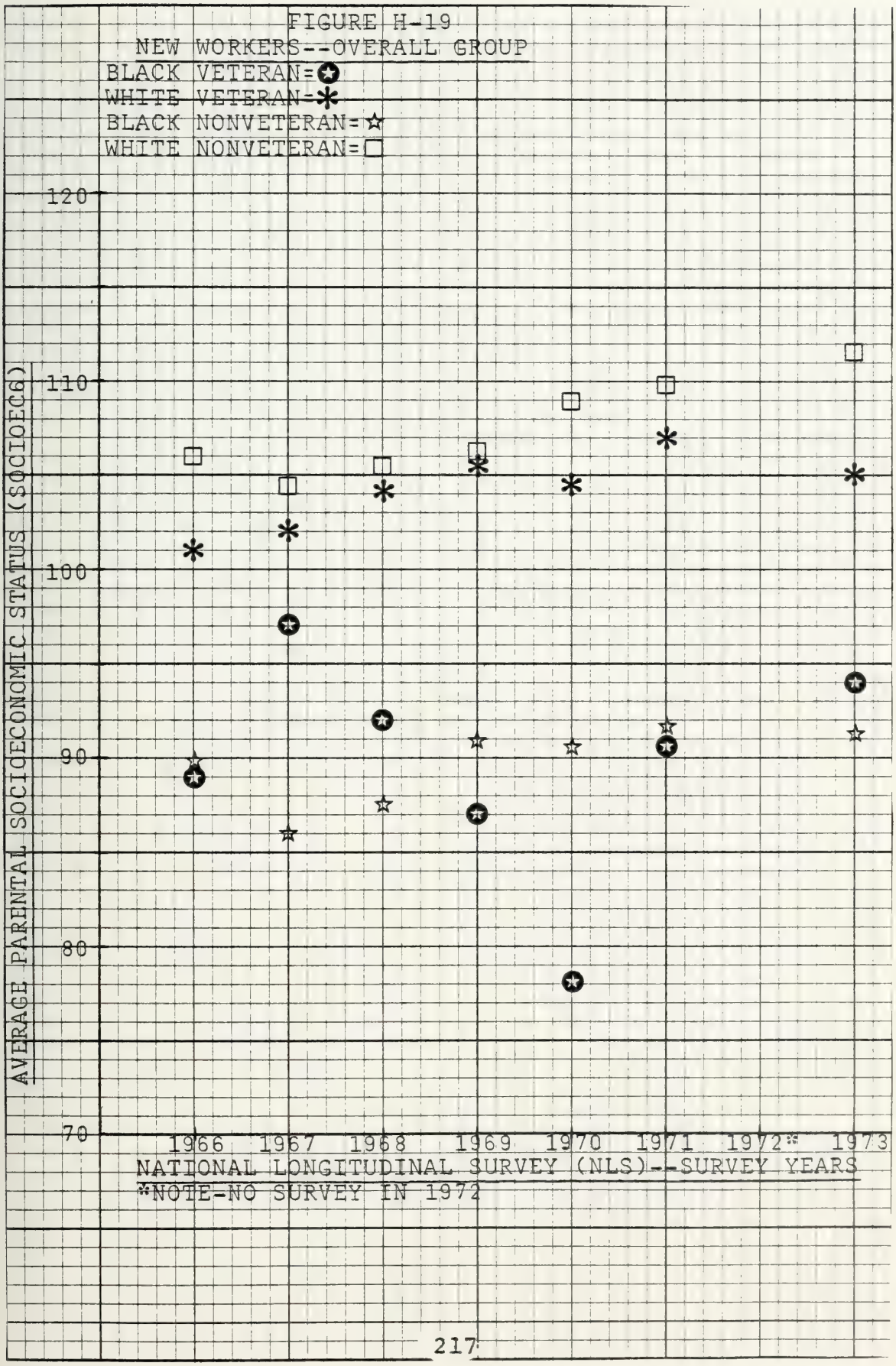


FIGURE H-20

NEW WORKERS--OVERALL GROUP

BLACK VETERAN=✪

WHITE VETERAN=✱

BLACK NONVETERAN=☆

WHITE NONVETERAN=□

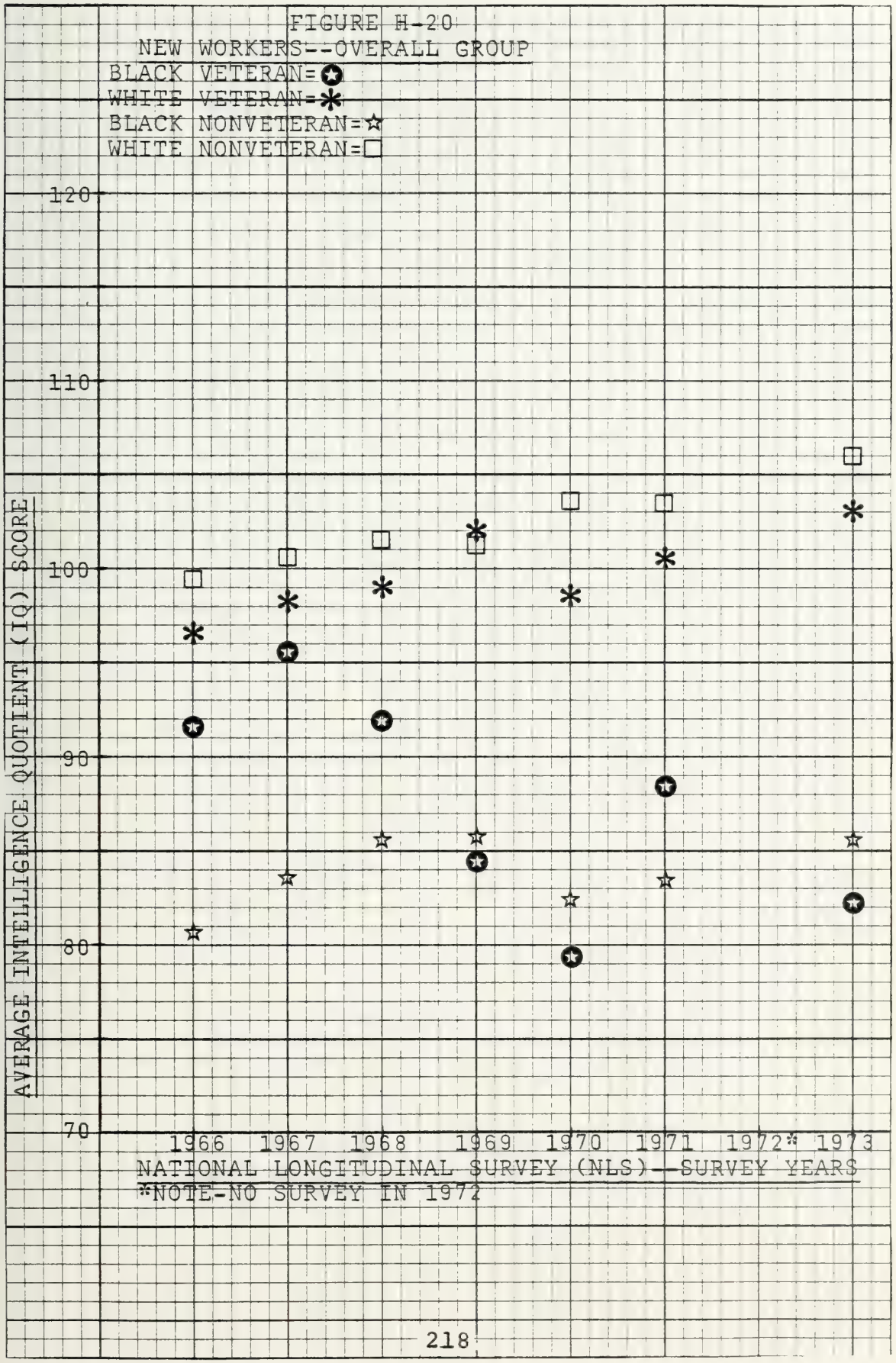


FIGURE H-21

NEW WORKERS--OVERALL GROUP

BLACK VETERAN=✪

WHITE VETERAN=✱

BLACK NONVETERAN=☆

WHITE NONVETERAN=□

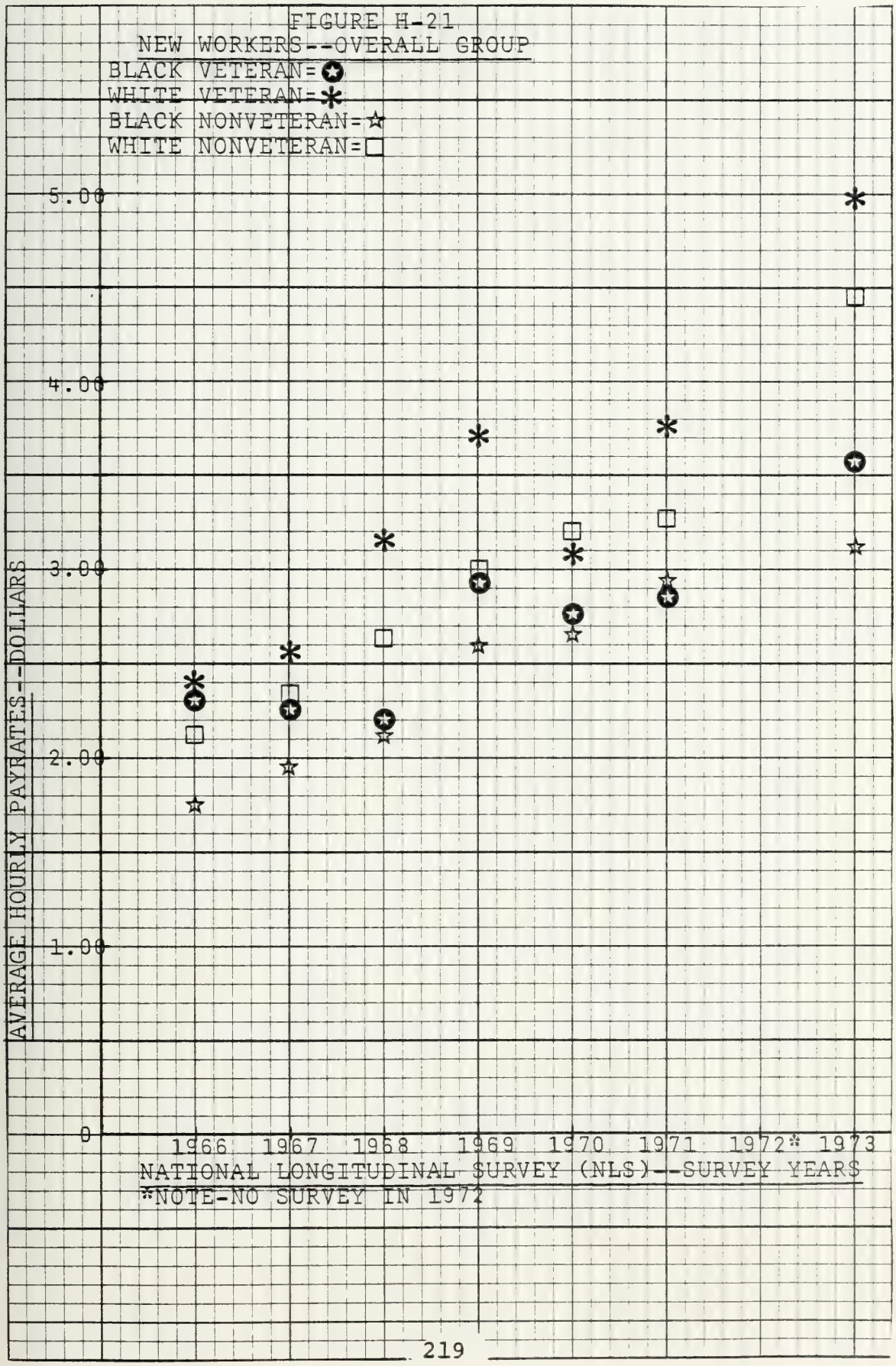


FIGURE H-22

NEW WORKERS--NONSOUTH GROUP

BLACK VETERAN=✪

WHITE VETERAN=✱

BLACK NONVETERAN=☆

WHITE NONVETERAN=□

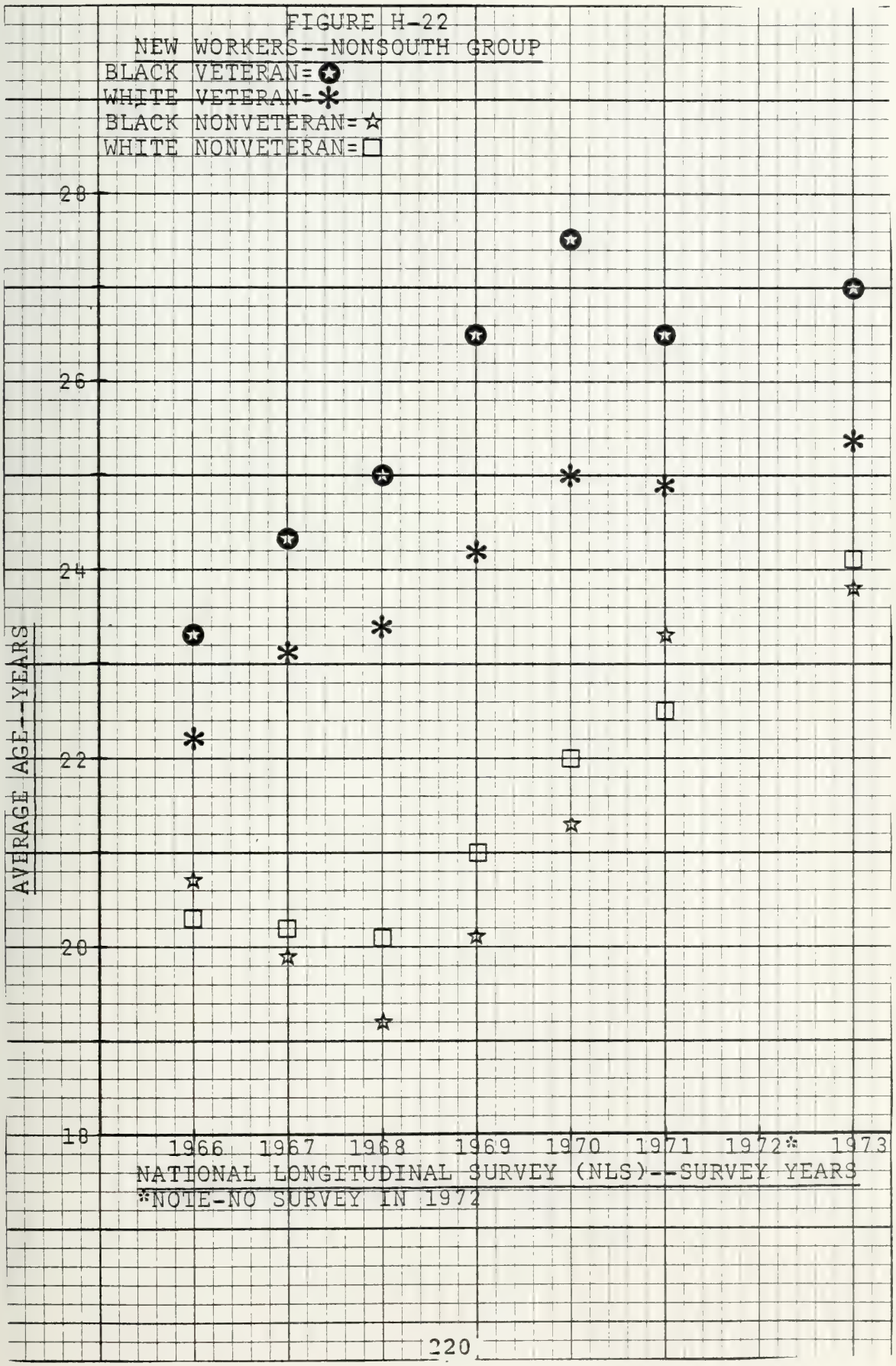


FIGURE H-23

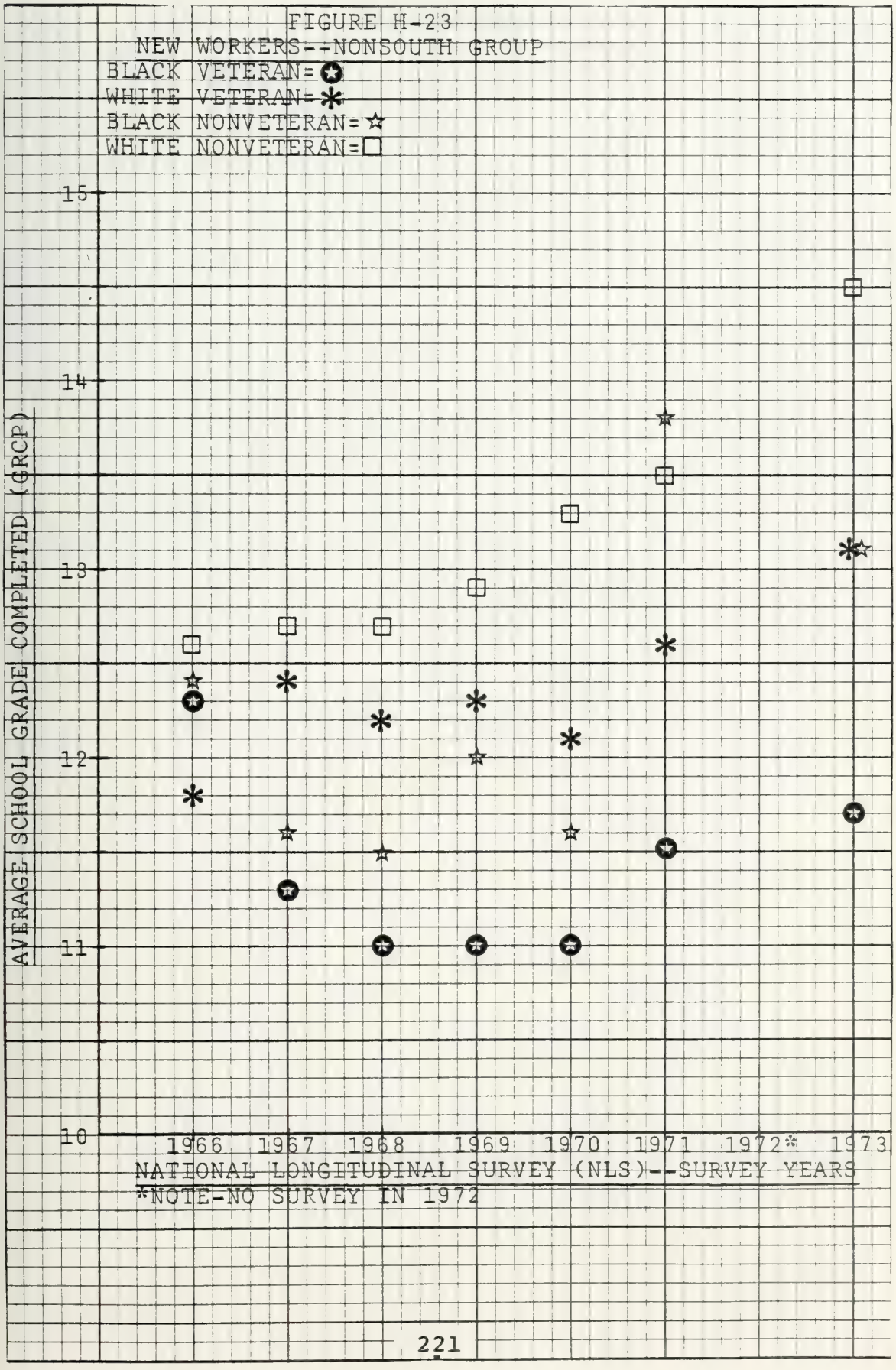
NEW WORKERS--NONSOUTH GROUP

BLACK VETERAN=✪

WHITE VETERAN=✱

BLACK NONVETERAN=☆

WHITE NONVETERAN=□



*NOTE-NO SURVEY IN 1972

FIGURE H-24

NEW WORKERS--NONSOUTH GROUP

BLACK VETERAN= ✪

WHITE VETERAN= ✱

BLACK NONVETERAN= ☆

WHITE NONVETERAN= □

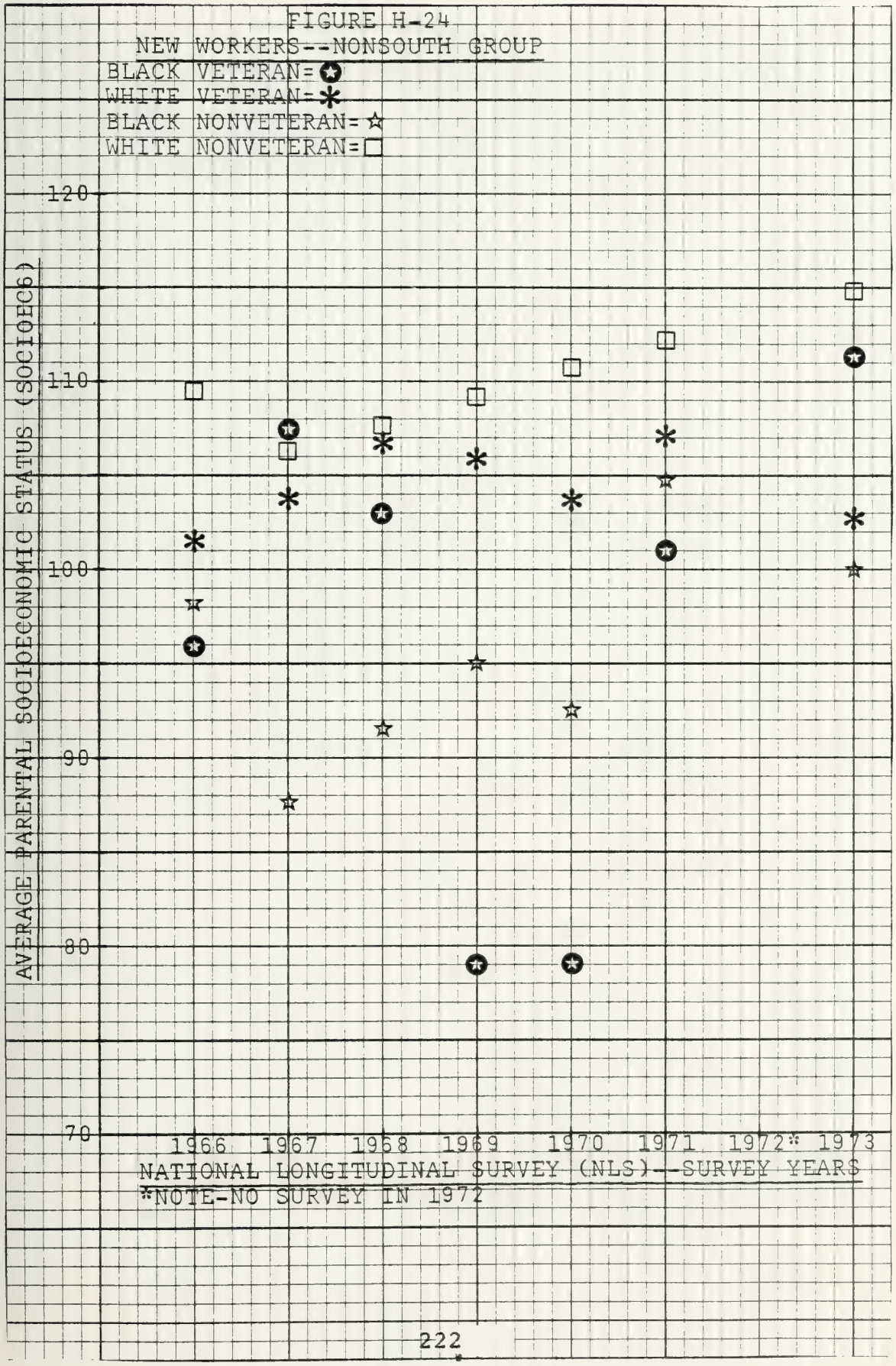


FIGURE H-25

NEW WORKERS--NONSOUTH GROUP

BLACK VETERAN=✪

WHITE VETERAN=*

BLACK NONVETERAN=☆

WHITE NONVETERAN=□

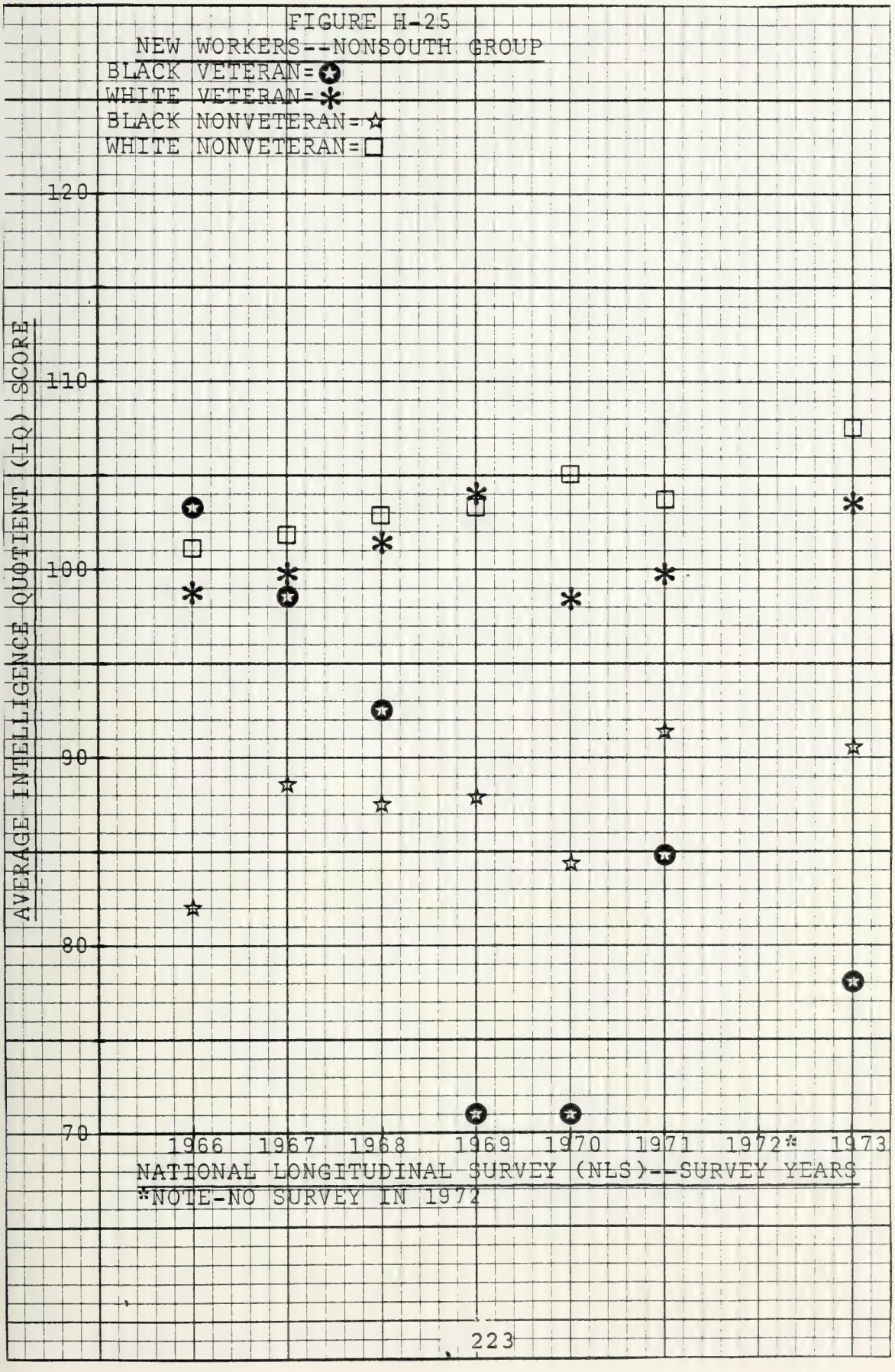


FIGURE H-26

NEW WORKERS--NONSOUTH GROUP

BLACK VETERAN=✪
WHITE VETERAN=✱
BLACK NONVETERAN=☆
WHITE NONVETERAN=□

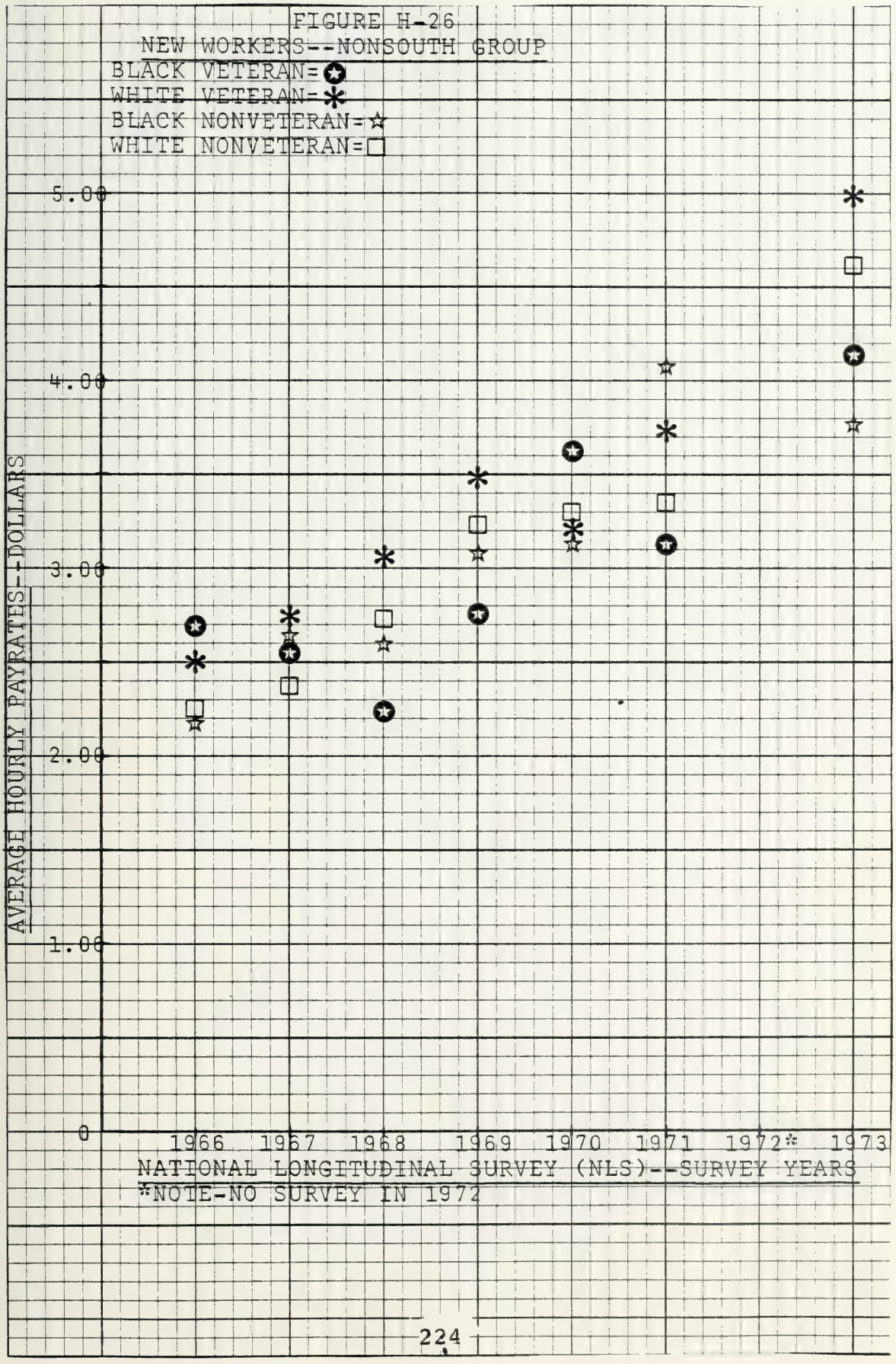


FIGURE H-27

NEW WORKERS--SOUTH GROUP

BLACK VETERAN=✪

WHITE VETERAN=✻

BLACK NONVETERAN=☆

WHITE NONVETERAN=□

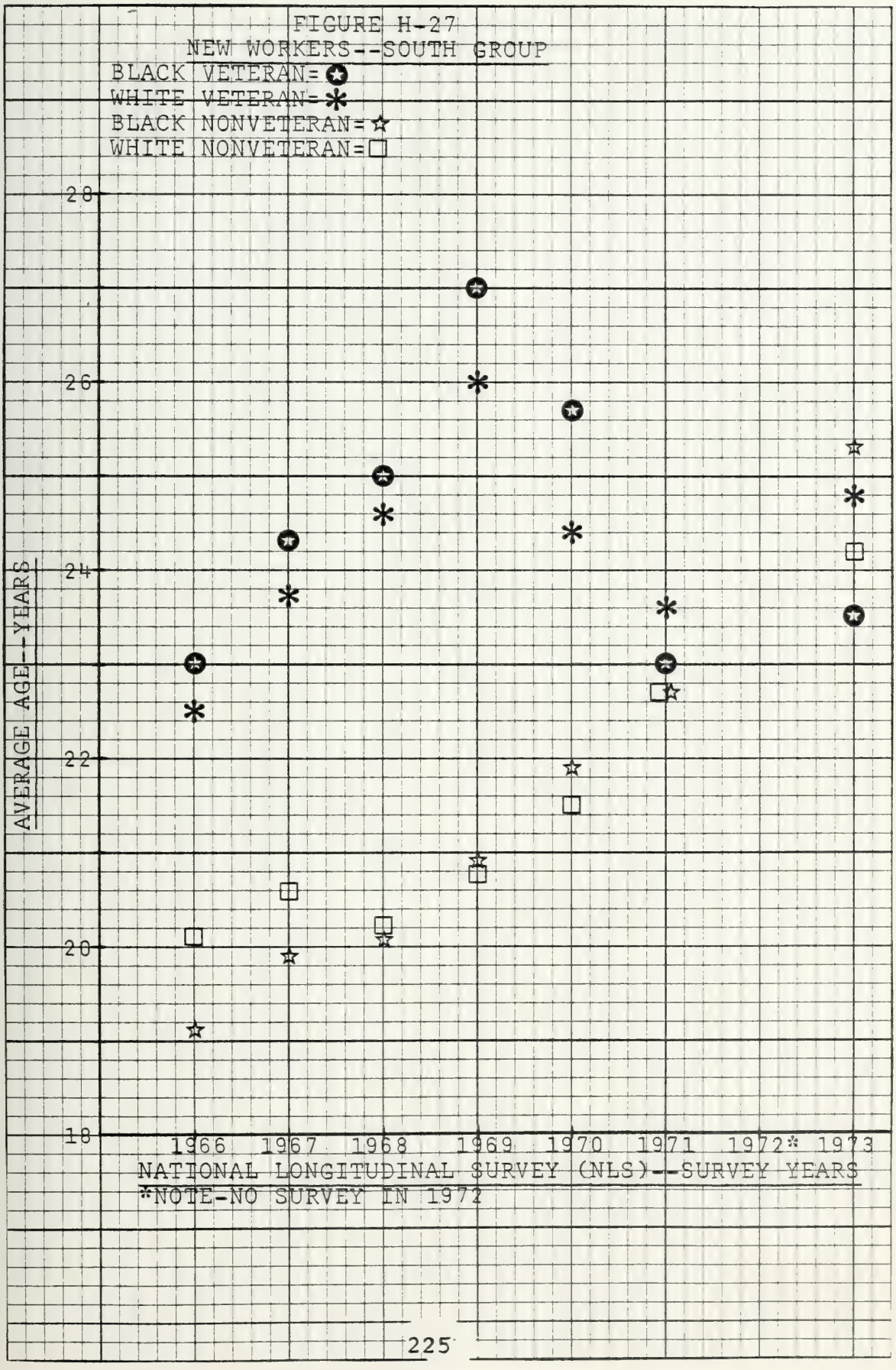


FIGURE H-28

NEW WORKERS--SOUTH GROUP

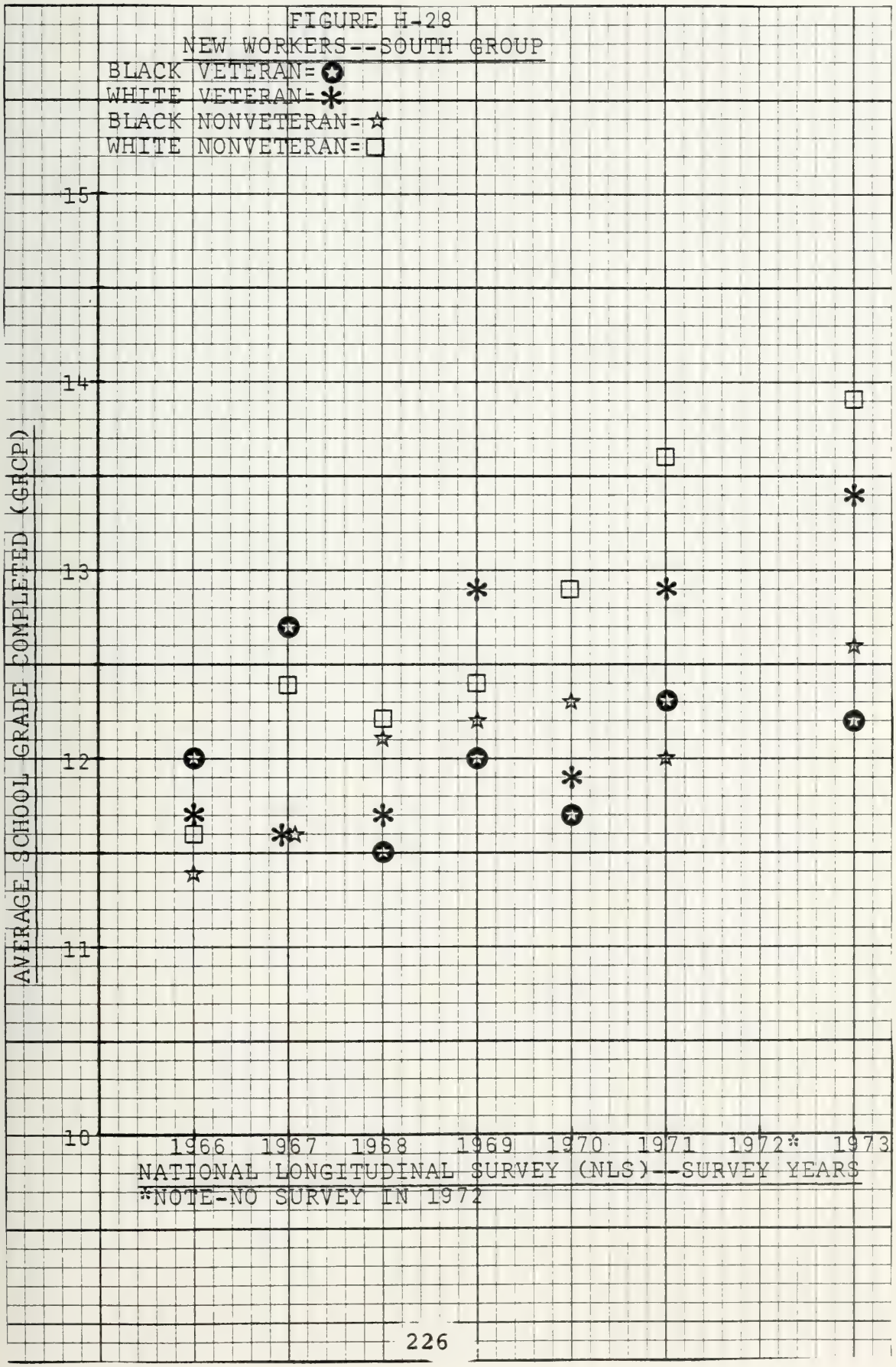


FIGURE H-29

NEW WORKERS--SOUTH GROUP

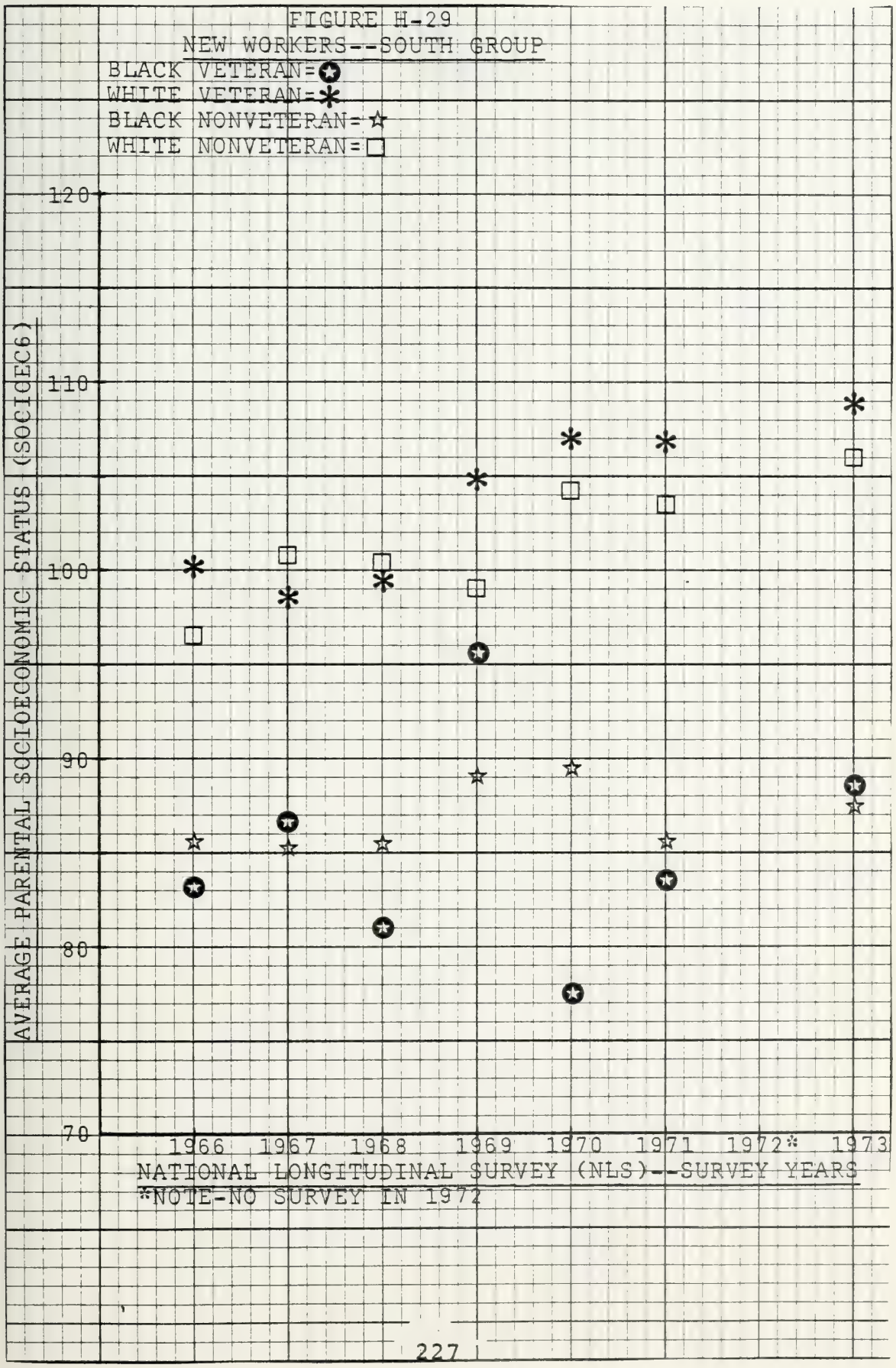


FIGURE H-30
NEW WORKERS--SOUTH GROUP

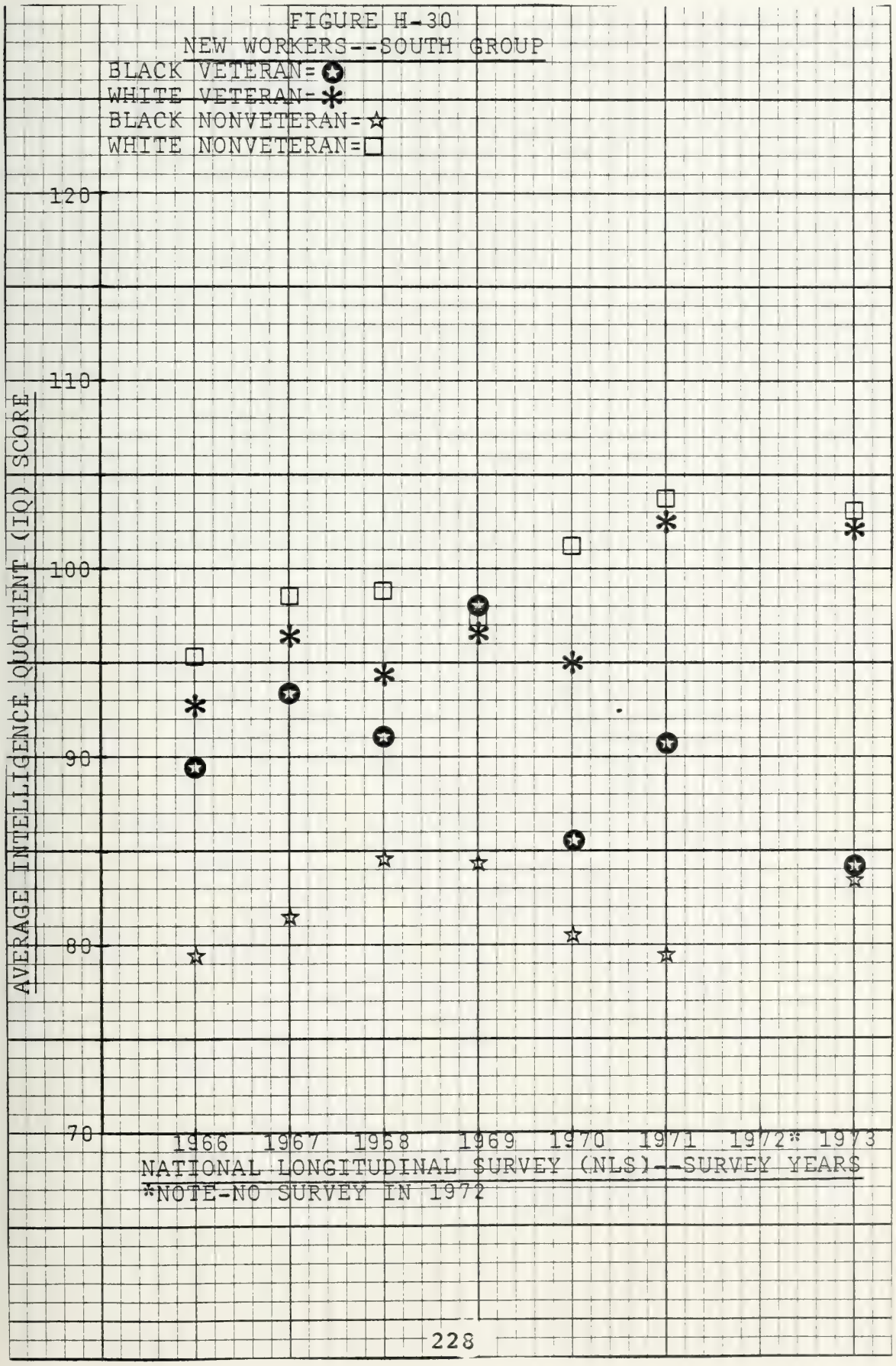


FIGURE H-31

NEW WORKERS--SOUTH GROUP

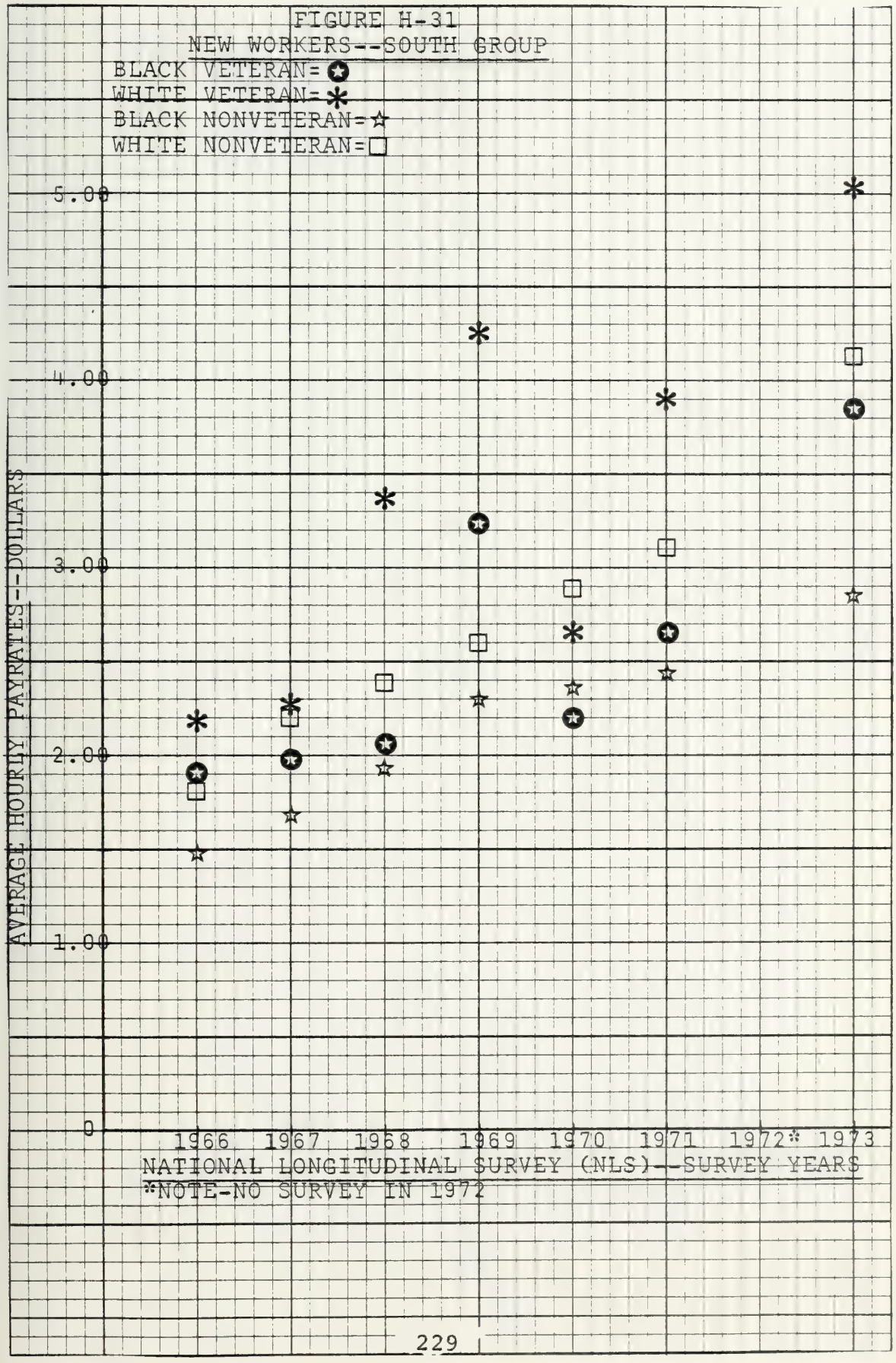


FIGURE H-32

NEW WORKERS--20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP

BLACK VETERAN=✪

WHITE VETERAN=*

BLACK NONVETERAN=☆

WHITE NONVETERAN=□

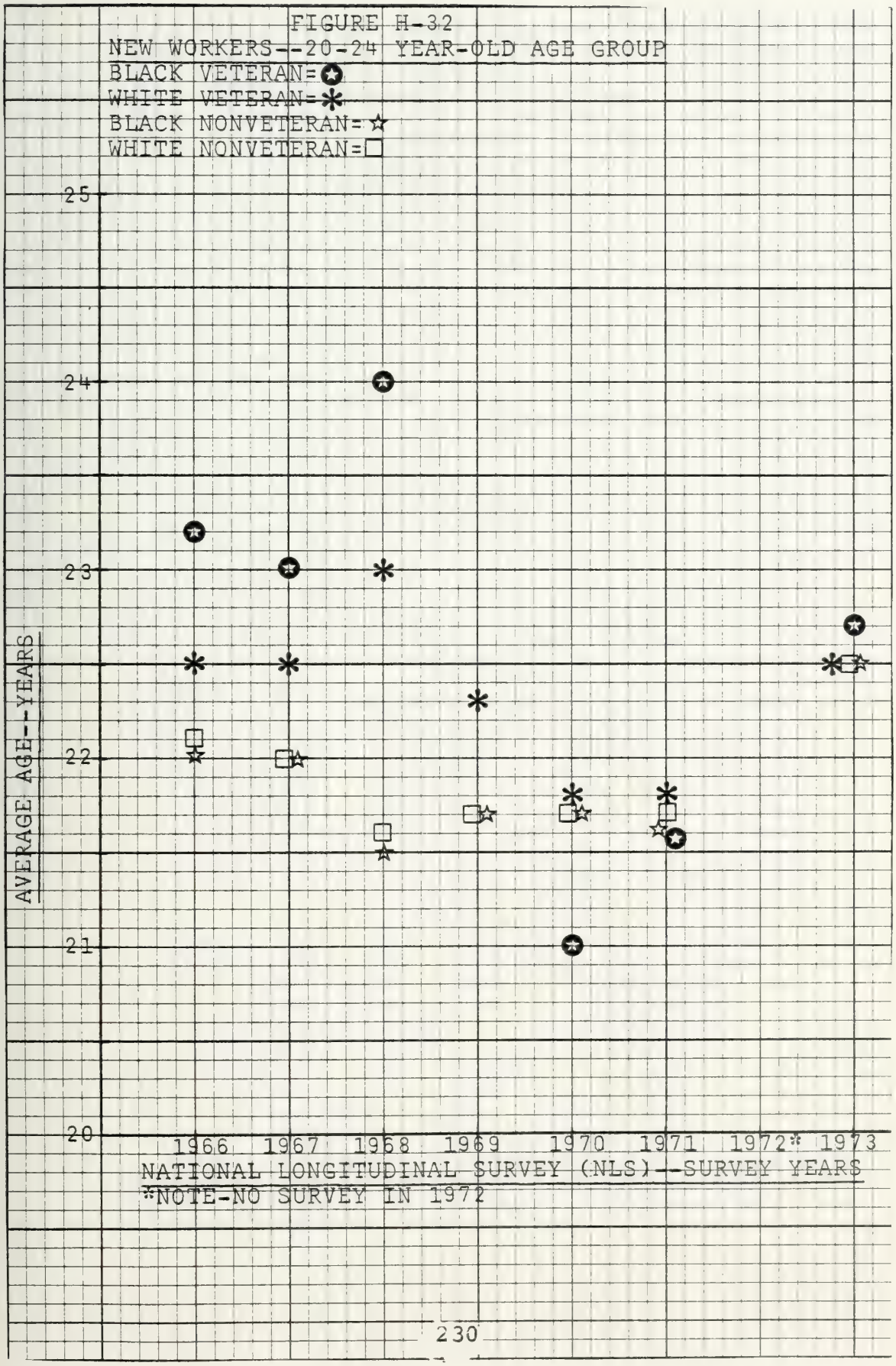


FIGURE H-33

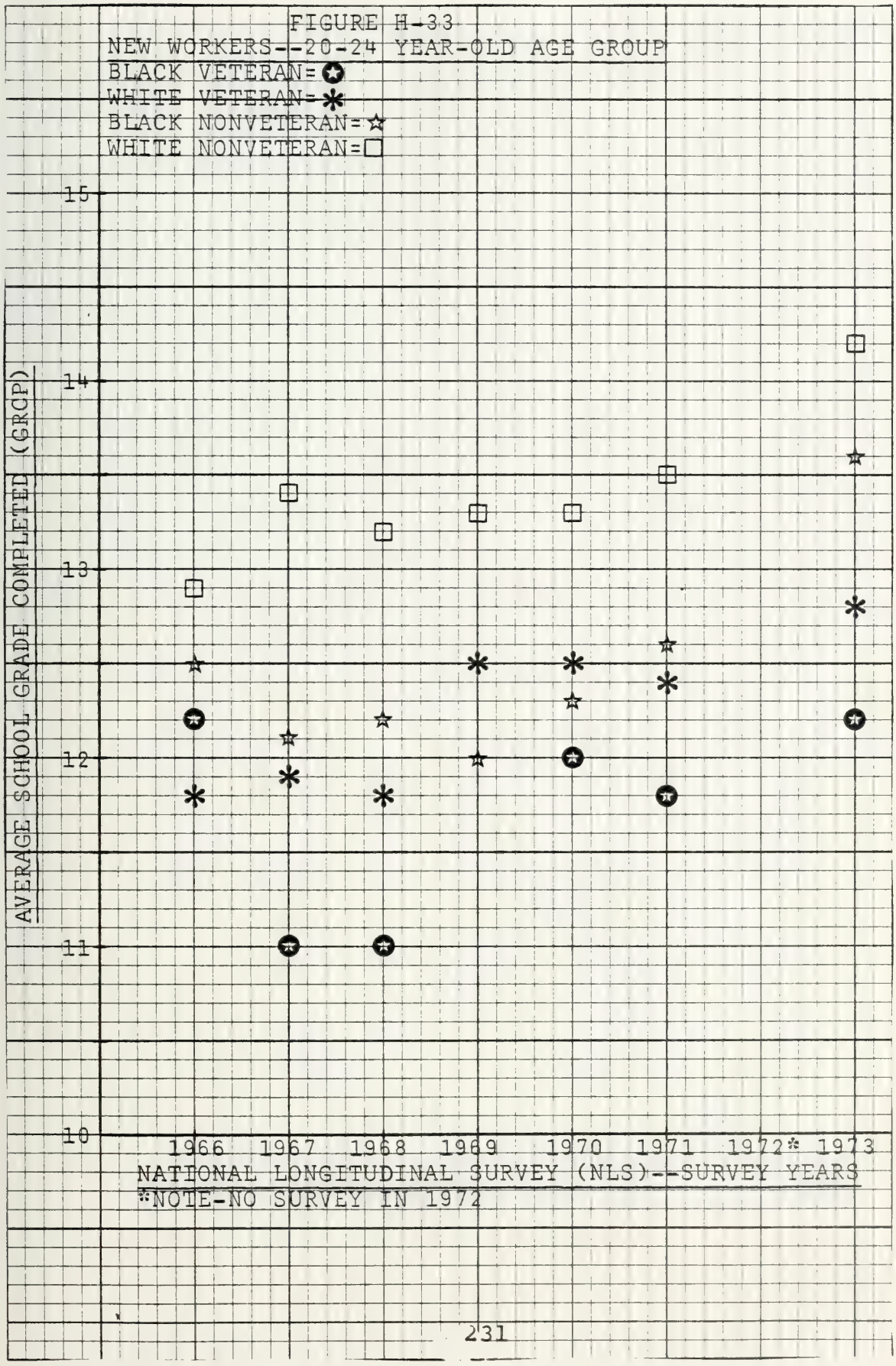

NEW WORKERS--20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP
BLACK VETERAN=
WHITE VETERAN=
BLACK NONVETERAN=
WHITE NONVETERAN=
AVERAGE SCHOOL GRADE COMPLETED (GRCP)
15
14
13
12
11
10
1966 1967 1968 1969 1970 1971 1972* 1973
NATIONAL LONGITUDINAL SURVEY (NLS)--SURVEY YEARS
*NOTE-NO SURVEY IN 1972

FIGURE H-34

NEW WORKERS--20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP

BLACK VETERAN=✪
WHITE VETERAN=*
BLACK NONVETERAN=☆
WHITE NONVETERAN=□

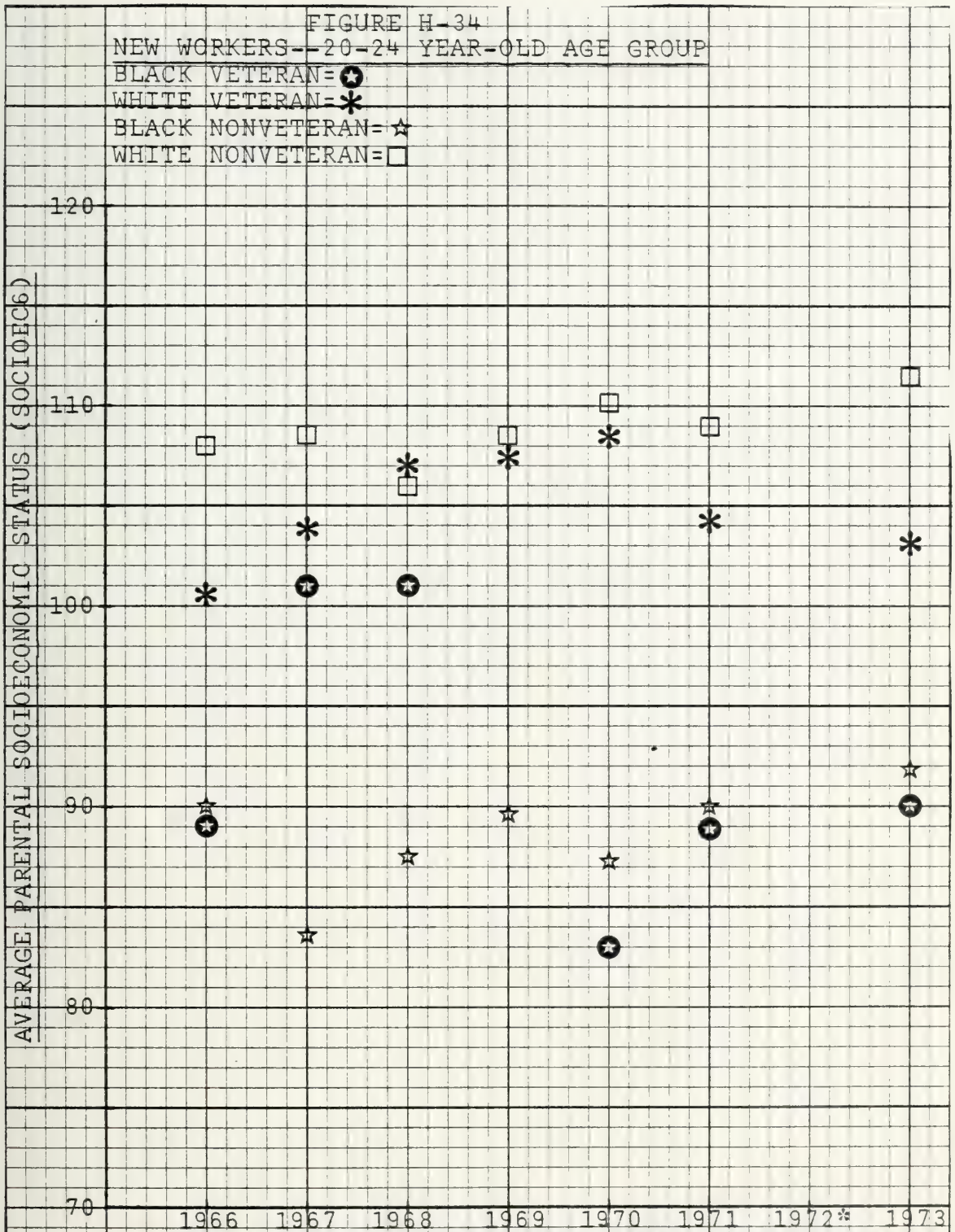


FIGURE H-35

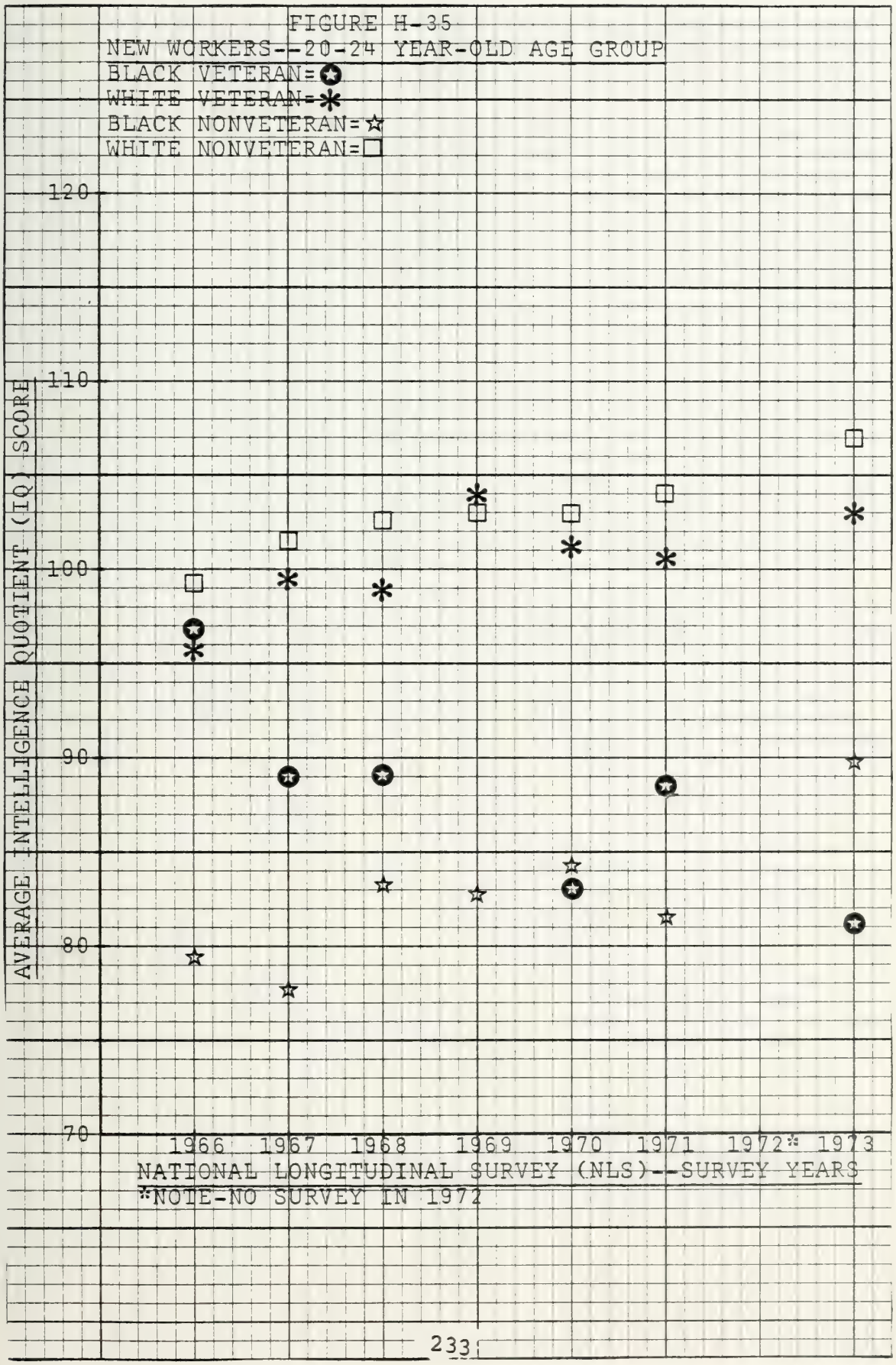
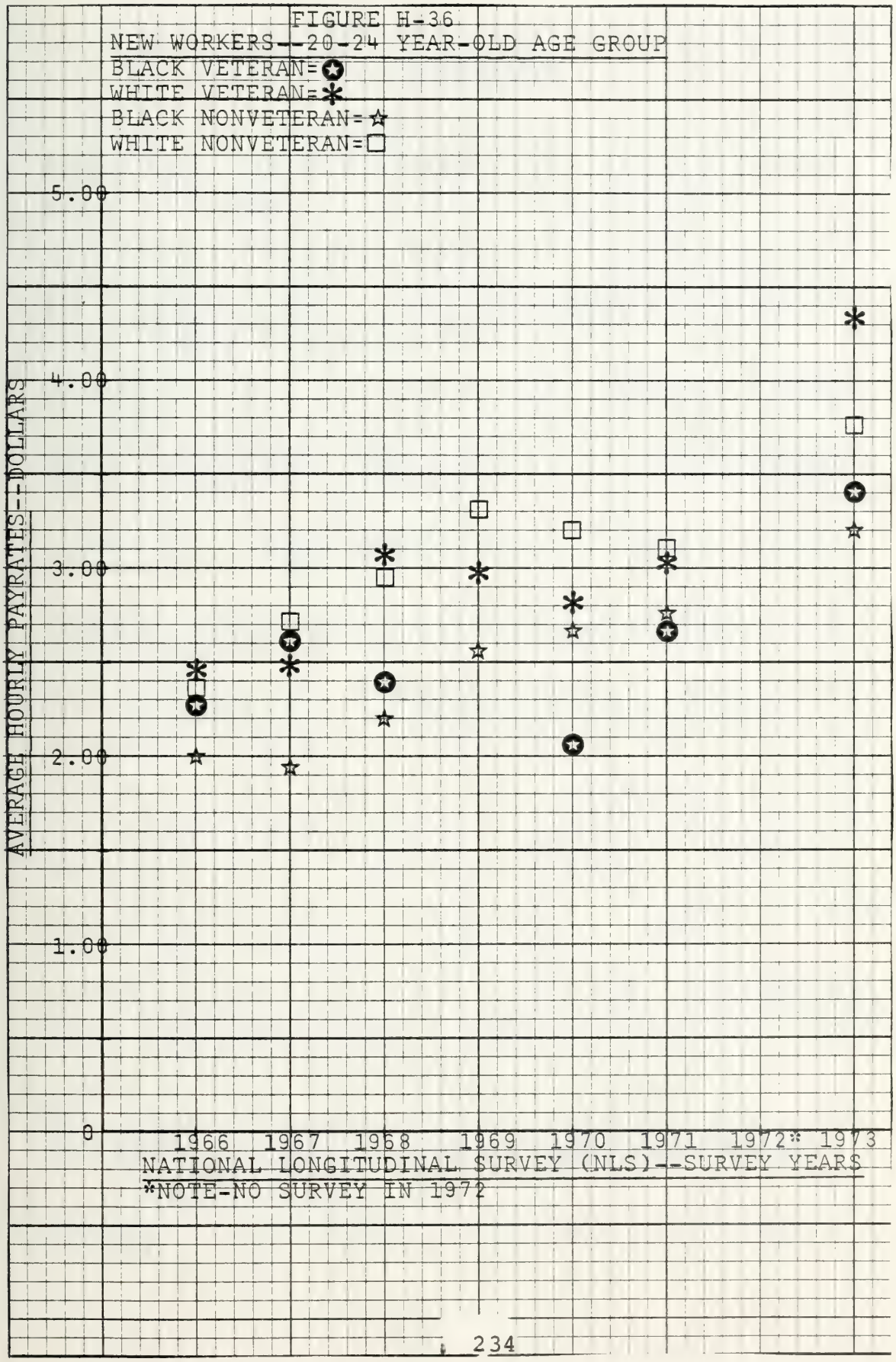

NEW WORKERS--20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP
BLACK VETERAN=✪
WHITE VETERAN=*
BLACK NONVETERAN=☆
WHITE NONVETERAN=□
120
110
100
90
80
70
AVERAGE INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT (IQ) SCORE
1966 1967 1968 1969 1970 1971 1972* 1973
NATIONAL LONGITUDINAL SURVEY (NLS)--SURVEY YEARS
*NOTE-NO SURVEY IN 1972

FIGURE H-36

NEW WORKERS--20-24 YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP

BLACK VETERAN=✪
WHITE VETERAN=✱
BLACK NONVETERAN=☆
WHITE NONVETERAN=□



*NOTE-NO SURVEY IN 1972

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